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# PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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VOL

# Public Personnel Review

*The quarterly journal of the Civil Service Assembly  
of the United States and Canada, devoted to the  
improvement of standards and practices in public  
personnel administration.*

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# PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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**THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY**

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## THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY of the United States and Canada is a non-profit association of public agencies, officials, and private citizens engaged or interested in public personnel administration. The constituent public agencies of the Assembly are civil service commissions and boards, or personnel offices serving a particular governmental department or division. They serve national, state, and local governments of the United States, and Dominion, provincial, and local areas in Canada. The Assembly was organized in 1906 by officials and others actually engaged in civil service and other public personnel activities in order to provide mutual help in meeting common problems and to improve public personnel administration.

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# The Civil Services in the Canadian Provinces

THEODORE KRAFT

EIGHT OF THE NINE Canadian provinces have placed their civil services under the supervision of civil service commissions. Nevertheless, the various provincial services differ considerably in the degree to which they provide for examinations for appointments, promotion according to merit, and tenure during satisfactory service. Diversity among the provinces in personnel practices did not always exist, for at one time in all the provinces politics was the controlling factor in the selection of public servants, and only slight consideration was given to ability, satisfactory service, and honesty. With every change of government there was a turnover among the public servants: appointees of the opposing party were dropped and political friends took over. Gradually, however, a change of practice occurred. As early as 1908, British Columbia made provision for a Civil Service Commission. Subsequently, seven other provinces have taken similar action—New Brunswick and Quebec doing so as recently as 1943. At first, the powers of these commissions were limited, but gradually their authority and scope of activity were extended. Despite these innovations, much progress remains to be made in the matter of competitive examinations and fully operative merit systems.

## THE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSIONS

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSIONS have been established by Alberta, British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Ontario, Quebec, and Saskatchewan. Prince Edward Island is now the only province without such an agency. Except in New Brunswick

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and Quebec, where the commissions are composed of three members, the commission consists of one person, who carries the title of "Commissioner."

In all cases the civil service agencies were created by acts of the provincial legislatures. Each act makes provision for the number of members on the commission, their tenure of office, vacancies, a chairman (if any), and the staff. The functions and duties of the agencies are set forth in exact detail. For example, the Civil Service Acts of Manitoba and British Columbia empower the Commissions:<sup>1</sup>

1. To test and pass upon the qualifications of candidates for admission to or promotion in the Civil Service, and to issue certificates with respect thereto required under the Civil Service Act or regulations;
2. Of its own motion to investigate and report upon the operation of the Civil Service Act, and upon the violations of any of the provisions of that Act, or of the regulations, and upon the request of a Minister, to investigate and report upon any matter relative to his Department, its officers, clerks and other employees;
3. To report upon the organization or proposed organization for the Departments and upon any proposed change in such organization;
4. To obtain the assistance of competent persons for preparation of examination papers and for the conducting of examinations; and
5. Such other duties as are assigned to it by the Lieutenant Governor in Council.

Each of the commissions is instructed to keep a record of all public employees, to inspect the services, to make inquiries upon request, and to submit an annual report to the Lieutenant Governor in Council (that is, the provincial government) for presentation to the legislature.<sup>2</sup> The civil service acts generally include

<sup>1</sup> *Statutes of Manitoba*, 1924, Chapter 33; and *Revised Statutes of British Columbia*, 1924, Chapter 35. There are minor variations in the phraseology of the acts, but they are essentially the same.

<sup>2</sup> The governments of the Canadian provinces are of the parliamentary type, in which the executive functions are directed in each province by a cabinet responsible to the provincial legislature. However, many acts of a provincial government are done in the name of the Lieutenant Governor of the province, who is appointed by the Dominion

instructions which the commission is to follow in the classification of positions, admission of persons to the service, appointments, promotions, transfers, participation in politics, penalties for offenses, temporary appointments, and retirement. Statutory provisions are also generally found covering the authority to issue regulations, and appeals from the decisions of the commission. One should note that the civil service acts of British Columbia, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan require the commissions in those provinces to employ competitive examinations, but as yet none of these provinces hold examinations for all covered positions. However, it has been the practice of these commissions to introduce competitive examinations wherever possible and expedient. The recently created commission of New Brunswick expects to employ competitive examinations as widely as possible.

The commissioners are appointed by the Lieutenant Governor in Council and serve during good behavior,<sup>3</sup> except in Saskatchewan where the term of office is seven years. A commissioner may be removed from office if necessary, of course, generally by the Lieutenant Governor in Council; however, the laws of New Brunswick, Manitoba, Quebec and Saskatchewan stipulate that removal is by the Lieutenant Governor in Council on an address of the Legislature (with a two-third vote required in New Brunswick and Manitoba). In Manitoba and Saskatchewan, the commissioner may be suspended by the Lieutenant Governor in Council for cause and a temporary appointment made until the legislature has considered the matter at its next session.

The commission in each of the provinces is authorized to draft civil service regulations, none of which become effective until they have been approved by the Lieutenant Governor in Council. These regulations normally include: definitions of terms, and rules relating

government and who holds the position, largely ceremonial, of head of the provincial government. In effect, the phrase, "Lieutenant Governor in Council," refers to the collective executive authority of a province consisting of the cabinet and the Lieutenant Governor, with the cabinet being the politically significant element.

<sup>3</sup> The Civil Service Act of New Brunswick is rather ambiguous, for although it states that the chairman shall hold office during good behavior, the tenure of the other commissioners is not specified.

to classification of the service, admission to the service, temporary employment, working hours, transfers, casual absence, sick leave, special leave, retiring leave, allowances for travel, and miscellaneous matters. Often the regulations are merely restatements, expansions, explanations, and interpretations of the provisions of the civil service act.

**T**HE PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONS have extensive supervision and jurisdiction over the public employees. Perhaps the most important function of a commission is the examination of candidates for civil service posts. Prospective employees may be required to undergo a qualifying or competitive examination and the commissions may merely evaluate the education and experience of applicants without a written examination. As a result of the competitive examinations, candidates are listed according to merit and ability. When a minister or deputy minister reports that a position is open, the commission, in a majority of the provinces, appoints the most qualified person on the list of eligibles. It is extremely important to note that the commission actually selects and appoints individuals to civil service posts.<sup>4</sup> This method of appointment applies in the Provinces of British Columbia, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan. In Alberta and Ontario, appointments are made by the Lieutenant Governor in Council after certification by the civil service commission and on the recommendation of the department head; and in Quebec, appointments are made by the Lieutenant Governor in Council upon the recommendation of the department head, who makes a selection from the list of eligible persons supplied by the commission. As a rule, promotions are made on merit—often qualifying or competitive examinations may be employed—and a civil servant cannot be promoted without certification by the civil service commission. The commissions also keep records of the personnel, each department submitting reports concerning the efficiency of its employees, their

<sup>4</sup> This is in contrast to general practice in the United States, where, except for those jurisdictions following the "rule of one," departmental officers have some freedom in making their choice from among the names certified by the personnel agency.

tardiness, absences, productivity, willingness, and cooperativeness.

Saskatchewan and Alberta provide for appeals from the decisions of their commissions in the classification or grading of employees. In Saskatchewan, a dissatisfied civil servant may appeal to a Joint Council consisting of three members appointed by the Lieutenant Governor in Council (one of whom is a member of the executive council or Cabinet), and five members who are elected for three year terms by the employees of the public service. However, no more than three of the employee-elected members may hear an appeal, the participants being determined either by mutual agreement or by lot. Four members constitute a quorum, provided that both the government and the employees each have two representatives. Questions are decided by a majority vote. The Joint Council has authority to make rules and regulations for hearings, and for lodging appeals and complaints. In Alberta, the Joint Council is composed of three members appointed by the Lieutenant Governor in Council and three members selected by the Civil Service Association of Alberta.

#### THE CIVIL SERVANTS

THE PROVISIONS governing employment in the several provincial civil service systems vary in many details. The general patterns, however, are enough similar to permit generalized description, with exceptions being noted in some cases. Such descriptions of the principal features of the systems as they affect employment and employees are attempted in the following paragraphs.

Normally, the civil service acts set forth the categories of personnel. The services in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Saskatchewan include: (1) The administrative or Deputy Minister Division, consisting of the top posts in the service such as permanent heads of departments and any other offices which the Lieutenant Governor in Council assigns to the group; (2) the Professional Division, usually subdivided into three or four grades, which includes persons of professional skill and training, such as legal, medical, literary, scientific, and other specialized fields; (3) the Clerical Division, divided into three or four grades, which includes chief clerks, court reporters,

draughtsmen, stenographers, typists, clerks, bookkeepers, accountants, inspectors whose qualifications do not entitle them to belong to the professional division, and any other offices designated by the Lieutenant Governor in Council; and (4) the General Division (all the remaining employees), with varying numbers of grades. In British Columbia and Manitoba, the services are divided into six divisions. Alberta, prior to 1943, employed a similar classification system, but a new division of positions into sixteen categories has been substituted. The Quebec service has at least eight classes, some of which have numerous subdivisions.

As a rule, candidates for civil service posts must be natural born or naturalized British subjects and residents of the province for a specified period, ranging from one to five years. In several provinces a medical examination is required, and the age of the appointee must fall within prescribed limits, depending upon the class of service. The age requirements are waived for veterans, who are also given either a bonus grade of ten per cent in competitive examinations, or preference when only a qualifying test is necessary. Posts are open to unmarried women, but a woman normally cannot remain in the public service after marriage unless special circumstances warrant an exception.

Appointments are generally made for a probationary period of six months (in Alberta, one year), after which a permanent assignment is made. However, during the probationary period the deputy minister may notify the commission that the appointee is unsuitable for stated reasons, or he may request a further six months' probation. The commission must decide whether a rejectee should be given another opportunity or be dropped from the eligible list.

THE CIVIL SERVICE ACTS (except those of Ontario and Quebec) require that vacancies be filled by promotions wherever possible, and the commissions make an effort to employ some measures of merit in determining promotion. In making a promotion, the commissioner consults with the permanent head of the department concerned, takes into account special qualifications and aptitudes, considers

seniority in the class, and may require a qualifying or competitive examination. Transfers are frequently utilized to fill vacancies.

Civil servants are not barred from voting at federal or provincial elections, if as individuals they are entitled to vote. However, no public official may engage in partisan work in connection with any election, or contribute, receive, or in any way deal with money for party funds. Any employee who violates this prohibition may be dismissed from the service without notice and without compensation in lieu of notice. This provision rather effectively divorces the civil servants from political activities.

The acts generally specify grounds for dismissal or punishment. The head of a department is authorized to suspend any employee charged with any of the listed offenses and to make a report of the matter to the commission. This body then undertakes an inquiry and the person accused may be represented by counsel at any hearing. A deputy minister may, with the consent of the head of the department, terminate the employment of any person under his jurisdiction upon notice, not in excess of thirty days, or upon payment of such salary in lieu of notice as the head of the department deems sufficient. In general, employees are not permitted to hold a position other than their official one or to engage in business activities without the express consent of the commission. It is customarily required that all new members of the public service take an oath to perform their duties faithfully and honestly.

If an increase in the work load makes it impossible for the regular staff to handle the work of a department, and if the commission cannot shift someone from another department, a temporary appointment for a three month period is made from a list of available temporary employees. In several provinces, the departments are authorized to appoint persons of their own selection for temporary posts. Experts may also be placed in work of an exceptional status without competitive or any other examination.

**E**Mployees normally enter the service at the lowest level of a grade or division and receive the minimum salary for that grade. After a year of service, which is certified as

satisfactory by the department head, the commission authorizes an increase to the next salary level. This progress continues until the maximum compensation for the grade is reached. Increments may be postponed if any employee has been absent from work for any extended period—generally for two months. When transferred, an employee continues to receive the same salary, or the minimum of the grade into which he has moved if that is greater than his previous stipend, but no reimbursement is permitted which is above the maximum of the grade into which he is transferred. Upon promotion, a civil servant begins at the minimum salary of the grade or at the stipend closest to his previous compensation, whichever is the higher. A temporary employee receives the minimum stipend of the grade to which he is assigned, and it cannot be increased while the appointment is not permanent.

The normal work week is thirty-six and one-half hours. If necessary, employees may be required to work longer in order to complete their work, and they usually receive no additional pay for doing so, although overtime pay may, in some cases, be awarded by the department head. As a rule, attendance and tardiness are recorded by some member of each department and reported to the commission once a month. If an employee is absent without a satisfactory explanation or leaves without permission, the deputy head may dock his salary for the period. Casual absences (one to three or four days' duration) are not allowed with pay in excess of eight working days per year unless certified by the department of health.

Sick leave of various periods up to one month (normally calculated according to the period served) may be granted by the head or deputy head of a department. If a longer period is necessary, a report must generally be made to the commission, and the authorization of the Lieutenant Governor in Council may be required. Generally, any further extension carries half pay and only for six months. Any absence through illness which exceeds a specific period (three or four days) must be substantiated by a certificate from a physician that the employee could not perform his duties. A special leave for a short time may be authorized by the head or deputy head of a department, but any extended leave must have the approval

of the commission. Most extended special leaves with pay, part pay, or without pay must be approved by the Lieutenant Governor in Council.

Civil servants are generally allowed one holiday with pay for eighteen working days in any year, to be taken when authorized by the head or deputy head of a department.<sup>5</sup> In some provinces, holiday leave may be accumulated from one year to the next, but not carried over for more than one year; in other provinces, annual leave cannot be taken without the passage of three months from the previous holiday. However, certain meritorious cases may receive more generous treatment on the recommendation of the commission. When a civil servant is about to retire, he is given a retiring leave which is calculated according to the length of employment. Any leave obtained fraudulently is sufficient grounds for a recommendation to the commission for the dismissal of the employee.

The provinces have introduced superannuation systems whereby employees may retire with an annuity, generally at the age of sixty-five. There may also be a gratuity for meritorious service which is authorized at retirement by the Lieutenant Governor in Council. There is generally provision whereby the widow and minor children of a civil servant who dies while in service receive a lump sum and annuity payments. If an employee dies shortly after retirement, there normally is a lump payment to the widow and children under eighteen.

#### THE PROVINCIAL CIVIL SERVICE SYSTEMS

**S**UMMARIES OF PRACTICES and rules in the provinces, generally, such as those preceding, suggest much uniformity among the governments in civil service matters. Such similarity exists through the independent adoption of common patterns, for each provincial system has come into being through separate action in the respective provinces and has its own history. Brief indications of these separate developments follow.

**Alberta.** One of the first provinces to create a commission to supervise its public service

was Alberta. Under the Public Efficiency Act of 1918,<sup>6</sup> a commission of one was authorized to serve during good behavior. Although no examinations are required, the commissioner determines whether applicants meet the qualifications set forth in a classification schedule. Appointments lower than deputy ministers, and other similar posts, are made by the Lieutenant Governor in Council on the recommendation of the President of the Council (the Premier) and after certification by the commissioner. A Joint Council of six was authorized by an act of 1938, with one-half of the members appointed by the Lieutenant Governor in Council and the other three by the Civil Service Association of Alberta.<sup>7</sup> The council was created to provide the greatest measure of cooperation between the government and the public servants.

Recently, the civil service system of Alberta has undergone a reorganization. In 1942, a special committee made a survey of salary scales and classifications and subsequently made recommendations for revisions. These changes were placed into operation under authority already vested in the commission and by an Act of March, 1943.<sup>8</sup> Five classes of personnel gave way to a new system of sixteen classes. New salary scales, with regular increments, and new lines of promotion were instituted. The 2,500 civil servants were reclassified from information obtained from questionnaires and personal interviews. The introduction of promotions based upon service records was an important innovation. These changes have greatly improved the public service in Alberta. All that now remains is the institution of appointments after competitive examinations wherever feasible.

**British Columbia.** A Civil Service Commission of one, serving during good behavior, was established in British Columbia in 1908.<sup>9</sup> A later Civil Service Act provided that the merit system and competitive examinations be introduced.<sup>10</sup> Although the latter principle has not been extended to the whole service, examinations have been held for stenographers, junior

<sup>6</sup> *Statutes of Alberta, 1918, Chapter 16.*

<sup>7</sup> *Statutes of Alberta, 1938, Chapter 41.*

<sup>8</sup> *Statutes of Alberta, 1943, Chapter 15.*

<sup>9</sup> *The Public Service Act of 1909.*

<sup>10</sup> *Revised Statutes of British Columbia, 1936, Chapter 39.*

<sup>5</sup> Employees who have worked less than one year are generally granted a leave of one and one-half days for each month served.

clerks, welfare visitors, boiler inspectors, forest rangers, and scalers. Applicants for professional or technical posts are graded according to their education and experience rather than by examinations. Promotions are made for satisfactory service and only after a qualifying examination. The service classification consists of four subordinate classes, technical officers, and deputy ministers. At the present time, a committee is preparing a reorganization and reclassification of the service, but as yet no information has been released as to what changes will be made.

*Manitoba.* A Civil Service Commission was created in Manitoba in 1918 with a single commissioner serving during good behavior.<sup>11</sup> The powers and duties of the commission were extended and increased by later acts, particularly, that of 1924.<sup>12</sup> Competitive examinations are employed wherever possible, and promotions are granted to employees having the best service records. Positions such as stenographers, typists, female clerks, forest rangers, sanitary inspectors, and land inspectors have been filled by examination, either qualifying or competitive. Prior to the outbreak of the present war, the commissioner was attempting to extend the examination system to include as much of the service as practicable. Candidates for specialized posts must submit to an oral examination as well as a written examination and the grades from each are combined. The public service of the province is classified into deputy ministers, technical officers and four other classes. Recently, the commissioner has made excellent progress in improving the civil service system.

*New Brunswick.* The Civil Service Commission of New Brunswick was created by an Act of 1943,<sup>13</sup> and the commission was organized in September of that year. The commission consists of three members, one being designated as chairman. The Civil Service Act provides that competitive examinations be employed for the selection of all personnel except those of a technical character. The commission has indicated that the examination system will include both qualifying and competitive

examinations, whichever is most appropriate. The New Brunswick Act differs from the others by providing that the Lieutenant Governor in Council shall appoint a panel of examiners from which the commission shall, from time to time, select Boards of Examiners to test and pass upon the qualifications of candidates. Each commissioner is an examiner and may sit with any board. The commission has already classified the various positions, and issued service regulations. In addition to a deputy minister category, there are three classes: executive, clerical, and general, with various grades in each. Salary scales and provisions for annual increments have been instituted. Promotions are to be made by the commission, based upon examinations, reports, tests, record ratings, and recommendations, as the Commission may prescribe. It is too soon for the system to be fully operative and as yet the selection of all personnel according to merit and ability has not been possible. However, good results are expected from the new system of New Brunswick.

*Quebec.* The Civil Service Commission of Quebec is also a recently created agency. The commission was established in September, 1943,<sup>14</sup> and includes a chairman and two commissioners, all of whom hold office during good behavior or until the age of 65 is reached. A commissioner may be removed only on the address of the Legislative Council (Provincial Senate) and the Legislative Assembly. Salaries of \$7,000 for the chairman and \$6,000 for the other two commissioners are provided in the Civil Service Act. (No other provincial civil service act sets the salary of the commissioners.) No person is to be appointed to a post in the provincial service, or promoted, unless he has been declared eligible by the commission. Eligible lists are to be prepared by the commission after examination of candidates; however, it is not clear whether these examinations are to be merely qualifying or competitive, for the Civil Service Act is not explicit on this point. The commission has prepared rules and regulations concerning examinations, promotion, leave, and working hours, but they had not been adopted by the Lieutenant Governor in Council at the time this article was in preparation. Apparently the service has not been

<sup>11</sup> Statutes of Manitoba, 1918, Chapter 19.

<sup>12</sup> Statutes of Manitoba, 1924, Chapter 33.

<sup>13</sup> Statutes of New Brunswick, 1943, Chapter 35.

<sup>14</sup> Statutes of Quebec, 1943, Chapter 9.

classified as yet, but provision for annual increments in existing salary schedules have been adopted. Inasmuch as the Civil Service Commission of Quebec is still in the process of organization, the full scope of its program remains to be developed.

*Nova Scotia.* The Nova Scotia Civil Service Commission, with a single member serving during good behavior, was created in December, 1935.<sup>15</sup> A professor at Dalhousie University was appointed commissioner, and, after a survey, the civil service was reorganized with a new scale of salaries, new lines of promotion, and a set of new regulations. Although the act directs that appointments be made only after competitive examinations, the commissioner has not found it expedient to invoke this provision. Eligible candidates are rated according to experience and education, and the civil service lists are kept up to date by the inclusion of new applicants. Records of employees are compiled by the commission and, although the merit system is not fully operative, recognition is given in promotions to employees for their usefulness and productivity. The public service includes four classes with various subdivisions. The civil service system in Nova Scotia tends toward informal, simple practices, but the small size of the province and its relatively few personnel make it infeasible to employ a highly complex system.

*Ontario.* The civil service system of Ontario differs considerably from the systems of the other provinces. The system has remained virtually unchanged since 1918, when the Civil Service Commission was instituted.<sup>16</sup> A single commissioner is appointed by the Lieutenant Governor in Council to serve during good behavior. The commissioner does not make appointments; he merely determines whether or not an appointee meets the qualifications prescribed in the classification plan, which was established by the commission and covers approximately 600 positions. Qualifying tests have been given to typists and stenographers. Appointments are made by the Lieutenant Governor in Council on the recommendation of a department head. The underlying purpose in the creation of the commission was to

take away from the various departments the power of appointment. The Cabinet of Ontario has discussed at various times the question of introducing competitive examinations, but it has decided that the expense involved would be too great and that the academic or professional standards required by the classification plan are sufficient to assure qualified appointees. The merit system is not employed and much control over the personnel of each department rests in the department head.

With every change of government in Ontario, there has generally been a heavy turnover of civil servants. However, since the advent of the George Drew Administration in 1943, office holders appointed by the former government have not been dismissed. In fact, in November, 1943, Mr. Drew stated that the civil service should be put on a new basis in which merit would receive a just reward and satisfactory performance would assure permanence. Whether Mr. Drew will be able to institute these changes, only the future will reveal.

*Saskatchewan.* Although Saskatchewan provided for a civil service commission as early as 1913, the present system was established by an Act of 1934.<sup>17</sup> The size of the commission is not specified by the Civil Service Act, but there is now a single commissioner. The term of office is seven years, although removal by the Lieutenant Governor in Council on the address of the Legislature is always possible. Examinations may be employed in the selection of personnel, but the Civil Service Act does not make them mandatory. The commissioner has held the view that inasmuch as Saskatchewan encompasses such a large area and is so thinly settled, it is neither practical nor economically justifiable to conduct examinations. Nevertheless, it is the practice of the commissioner to appoint the most qualified person whenever there are several applicants for the same post; and promotions are awarded to those who have the best service record. One should note that Saskatchewan employs a Joint Civil Service Council to settle issues between the government and the public servants and to hear appeals from employees who are dissatisfied with decisions of the commissioner concerning

<sup>15</sup> *Statutes of Nova Scotia, 1935, Chapter 8.*

<sup>16</sup> *Revised Statutes of Ontario, 1937, Chapter 15.*

<sup>17</sup> *Statutes of Saskatchewan, 1934-35, Chapter 4.*

classification, grading, and work performed and assigned.

*Prince Edward Island.* The Province of Prince Edward Island has never seen fit to create a civil service commission. The small size of the Island and its governmental services make such a development questionable, although politics plays a strong role in appointments and promotions of public employees. Appointments are made by the government (Lieutenant Governor in Council) on the request of a department, or by a department head himself. It is evident that the ministers have complete authority over their departments, and, inasmuch as there are no qualifying or competitive examinations, practically anyone can be appointed to office. Promotions are made by the Lieutenant Governor in Council on the recommendation of the department head. Although there is no merit system, all employees do not lose their posts with a change of government. Nevertheless, the stability which comes with security of positions and the orderly functioning of departments is not always evident in Prince Edward Island.

#### SUMMARY

ALTHOUGH MANY PATTERNS of similarity are found among the provincial civil service systems, there remains considerable variety in their organization and practices. British Columbia, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan have placed the power of appointment to civil service posts in the hands of civil service commissions. Alberta, Nova Scotia, and Saskatchewan do not employ competitive examinations, but candidates for posts are selected with regard to minimum standards. Manitoba and British Columbia make use of competitive examinations wherever practical, but have not extended the practice to every post in the service. New Brunswick contemplates the introduction of both competitive and qualifying examinations. In fact, all the provinces except Prince Edward

Island will soon be using examinations (qualifying, in some instances) for at least parts of their services. In all the provinces, except Ontario and Quebec, the civil service acts require that vacancies be filled by promotion whenever possible. As a rule, commissions make an effort to award promotions according to merit, by taking into consideration qualifications, aptitudes, seniority, or service ratings. In some instances, qualifying or competitive examinations may be used in promotion.

Most of the provincial civil service systems have been in existence for a number of years and are well organized and fully established. Nevertheless, changes are continually being made. The reorganization of the Alberta system in 1943 is a specific example. At the present time, a study of the classification and organization of the British Columbia service is in progress. The administration's interest in the introduction of the merit system in Ontario may lead to a revision and overhauling of the Ontario civil service. The introduction of commissions in New Brunswick and Quebec has been too recent to evaluate properly but undoubtedly the civil service systems in both Provinces will benefit immeasurably. In general, the picture is one of widespread adoption of some of the elements of a merit system, without attempting to change all of the traditional personnel practices at a single stroke. Accompanying these moderate moves, with few if any reversals of trend, are occasional encouraging actions to improve upon the bases already created.<sup>18</sup>

<sup>18</sup> The author is indebted to the following for providing materials and information concerning the civil services of each province: Mr. M. W. Robertson, Civil Service Commissioner of Alberta; Mr. Norman Baker, Civil Service Commissioner of British Columbia; Mr. C. Rice-Jones, Civil Service Commissioner of Manitoba; Mr. E. Allison MacKay, Chairman of the Civil Service Commission of New Brunswick; Mr. Murray Macneill, Civil Service Commissioner of Nova Scotia; Mr. C. J. Foster, Civil Service Commissioner of Ontario; Mr. Ayme La Fontaine, Chairman of the Civil Service Commission of the Province of Quebec; and Mr. F. W. G. Miles, Civil Service Commissioner and Mr. William P. Turner, Acting Civil Service Commissioner of Saskatchewan.

# Occupational Tools for Peacetime Conversion

CARROLL L. SHARTLE

IT IS RELIABLY ESTIMATED that there are 30,000 separate occupations in industry, business, government, and the armed forces. In each particular employing establishment these occupations are broken down into many specific jobs. Although there are similarities among occupations and among jobs, each occupation and each job is distinct in some way from any other occupation or job. Realizing the great variety of occupations, one can see the complexity of the very large interoccupational movement which is going to take place in this country during the conversion to a peacetime economy.

It has been estimated that approximately 20,000,000 veterans and war workers will shift to different jobs in the period of conversion.<sup>1</sup> In order to aid in the conversion process it is, of course, necessary to have reliable information about occupations and their interrelationships. It is also necessary to know as much as possible about human abilities and aptitudes, how they are related to the various occupations, and how such abilities, interests, and aptitudes can be estimated or measured. Such occupational information and occupational tools are essential equipment for persons who are concerned with giving assistance to veterans and civilians making the transfer. Much of this information is also of value to the job-changing individual who wishes to know the characteristics of various occupations in the light of his own interests, training, and his own estimates of his ability.

In order to obtain accurate information concerning jobs, and to study the abilities and

aptitudes of workers on a nationwide scale, a systematic program of occupational research was inaugurated by the United States Employment Service in 1934. During a ten-year period approximately 100,000 jobs have been analyzed and 22,000 separate occupations have been defined and classified in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*.<sup>2</sup> Job descriptions have been prepared on an industry basis for 18 industries. Trade tests have been developed for 250 occupations, and aptitude test batteries for 180 occupations have been developed. Relationships between military and civilian occupations have been studied and work is in progress now to increase the information available regarding the transferability of skills between wartime civilian occupations and peacetime civilian occupations.

Although this work has been progressing for over ten years and the tools developed have been very useful in the war effort, it can be said that only the surface has been scratched in the studies of occupations and worker skills and abilities. Much more must be done to meet the minimum needs for conversion. In pursuing this program the occupations in which the largest number of workers are employed have been given most extensive study. It is felt that such an allocation of personnel and funds yields the greatest return in practical benefit.

<sup>1</sup> For estimates of trends of employment in various lines of activity in the post war period see Donald H. Davenport, Charles D. Stewart and Hugh B. Killough, "Impact of War Upon Employment," *Public Personnel Review*, July, 1944, pp. 140-45.

<sup>2</sup> The Dictionary is not a static reference work, but a growing compendium of occupational information. Parts I and II, which appeared in 1940, consist respectively of job definitions and an occupational coding system. A Supplement to Parts I and II containing information resulting from the analysis of additional jobs was published in 1943. Part III, a temporary volume of conversion tables showing job relations, is now obsolete and out of print. Part IV, a preliminary volume on entry occupations for individuals with limited work histories, appeared in 1941, and a revised edition is in experimental use, with the expectation that it will be ready for general use soon. All of these volumes, as well as the other occupational tools developed by the Division of Occupational Analysis, have been published by the Government Printing Office.

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## RELATION OF MILITARY TO CIVILIAN JOBS

**A**S EARLY AS 1936 a representative of the General Staff of the War Department surveyed the occupational research work in the Employment Service and indicated that the War Department, in time of emergency, would rely on the section which has since become the Division of Occupational Analysis and Manning Tables for many of the necessary occupational tools, particularly the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and the series of oral trade questions. In 1940 this same representative of the War Department began to work with the Division on plans for use of the *Dictionary* and oral trade questions, and also initiated a project whereby occupational analysts in the division made analyses of military jobs held by enlisted men in the United States Army—a total of nearly 10,000 job analyses. Likewise arrangements were made with the Navy for the use of the *Dictionary*, the oral trade tests, job families, and other materials. In anticipation of the discharge of men from the armed services for civilian employment, arrangements were made with the Navy Department and the War Department whereby tables of related skills could be prepared showing the civilian occupations which are most nearly similar to jobs in the armed services. Now available for enlisted men's jobs in the Army and Navy, the tables of jobs related to Army specialties are called *Special Aids for Placing Military Personnel in Civilian Jobs*, and for Navy specialties, *Special Aids for Placing Navy Personnel in Civilian Jobs*.<sup>3</sup> It is believed that the materials for placing military personnel can also be used readily in placing Marine Corps personnel.

The aids for the placing of military and naval personnel, as shown in Figures 1 and 2, give a definition of the military job and show several tables of related occupations. An estimate is made of the additional training required, and also of the physical activities and working conditions of these related civilian jobs. These estimates are of course for civilian jobs generally, and will vary from place to place. They must be used with a good deal of care in the counseling and placement of ex-servicemen and women, since, for lack of space, not all the related jobs for each military spe-

cialty can be shown. Also, the discharged serviceman or woman may not be interested in pursuing an occupation similar to his or her military assignment. By using Part II of the *Dictionary* one can discover additional related occupations for many of the civilian jobs which are listed for each military specialty.

For many of these civilian jobs there are published job families which reflect additional related civilian jobs. All of these materials are in use in all offices of the United States Employment Service. They have also been supplied in large quantities to the armed services, the Veterans' Administration, and other agencies. There has been a wide sale to industrial plants, other employing establishments, and schools and colleges.

Both the Army and Navy placement manuals may be adapted specifically to the particular use of any employing establishment or agency. Thus, by noting the definitions of the civilian jobs in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, those civilian jobs listed in the manuals which do not apply to the plant or agency may be deleted, and other specific jobs may be added which are related, even though they were omitted from the published manuals because of lack of space or were included only under broader titles.

The present published materials for placing military and naval personnel in civilian jobs do not include assignments held by commissioned officers, but such aids are in preparation. The enlisted mens' jobs were worked out first because of the natural greater demand for those materials.

## PHYSICAL DEMANDS IN JOB ANALYSIS

**I**NFORMATION developed by job analysis is the source of material which is used by the division in the preparation of its occupational materials. Job analysis is always the first step in the development and validation of trade tests and aptitude test batteries. It is a basic tool for the placement and utilization of handicapped workers. In order that jobs may be adequately analyzed to meet all of the uses of job analysis information, the following parts are now standard practice in analysis and description:

1. *Identification data:* Name the job and locate it specifically.

\* For sale by Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

2. *Work performed:* Describe the tasks involved.
3. *Performance requirements:* Indicate the demands that the job places on the worker for successful performance.
4. *Sources of workers:* Include also necessary training and experience.
5. *Comments:* Present the technical and general background of the job.
6. *Physical demands:* Point out working conditions and physical factors.
7. *Worker characteristics:* (The analyst's estimate of the inherent characteristics of the worker that are brought into play by the job.)

Of particular current interest is the item in the above list concerning the physical demands of the job. In the early days of the occupational research program, attention was given to the physical factors of jobs with special consideration to the use of handicapped workers in various occupations. This has developed into the physical demands approach to the analysis of jobs, an approach which places emphasis on physical activities and working conditions. In conjunction with this approach there has been developed a companion technique known as the physical capacities appraisal which is used by the physician in estimating the physical activities which a worker can perform and the working conditions under which he can be employed. It is important that this information be known so that the worker may be placed on the job which he is physically capable of performing.

This technique of matching the individual worker to a specific job is believed to be much better than the practice of listing jobs which can be performed by persons with various disabilities, since such lists convey the idea that the occupations listed are the only ones which can be performed by these persons. Furthermore, the technique places emphasis on the physical assets of the worker rather than on his liabilities, as was done with the listing of jobs "suitable" for handicapped persons. Many employers throughout the country are adopting the physical demands approach to their own employment procedures.

The Division has developed procedures, forms, and a body of information for the facilitation of the physical demand approach in employment. The principal placement instruments in this case are the "Physical Demands Form" and the "Physical Capacities Appraisal

Form."<sup>4</sup> They are parallel forms, the first relating to and recording facts about jobs and the second providing for the recording of the parallel facts about a particular individual's physical capacities and limitations. The first form, using a check list, allows the designation by the job analyst of the particular physical activities (climbing, crouching, lifting, pulling, etc.) required on the job and of the particular working conditions (inside, outside, wet, dusty, etc.) encountered on the job. In addition, a narrative description of the activities, conditions, and hazards of the job is made, including quantitative specifications of amounts, periods, and frequency of particular physical demands, such as weights lifted, distances climbed, or time of exposure to toxic conditions.

The physical capacities appraisal form is filled out by a physician who indicates on the check list the physical activities and working conditions for which the individual examined has only partial capacity or no capacity. Space is provided for indication of limits on weight lifting, for estimates of the amounts of partial capacities, for comments on suitable and unsuitable working conditions, and for medical diagnosis. By comparing the form of an individual with the comparable data regarding the physical demands of jobs, the man and job can be matched on the basis of systematic information about both.

It is also possible to prepare general physical demands information from a number of physical demands analyses of the same occupations from several different plants. This composite will need to be verified locally before a handicapped person is placed in a specific job opening. Considerable less time is involved in verifying a composite description than in making an original analysis each time.

#### ADDED COVERAGE FOR THE DICTIONARY

**T**HE *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* is at present probably the most widely used occupational document in the world. Six thousand copies are in use by the armed forces; civilian government agencies have obtained 24,000 copies; and private industry has purchased 11,000 copies. A total of 56,000 copies

<sup>4</sup> Forms ES-130 and ES-150, which may be consulted at any Employment Service Office.

## SPECIAL AIDS FOR PLACING MILITARY PERSONNEL IN CIVILIAN JOBS

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## FINANCIAL TECHNICAL CLERK 622 (0-97.13)

**Financial Accounting Clerk**

Works in the finance office of a post, camp, or station, processing vouchers for pay allowances, travel expenses, supplies, and nonpersonal services.

Maintains schedules of collections and disbursements, cash book, cash blotter, accounts current, and related papers. Decides questions of legality, propriety, form, procedure, and method of payment. Recommends new procedures or the revision of existing procedures.

Should be thoroughly familiar with Army regulations and laws governing the distribution of funds as well as established policies governing disbursement of money.

Completion of an appropriate course at an Army school or equivalent civilian or military experience required.  
(To be assigned only to Finance Department duties.)

Related civilian occupations	Additional training required	Physical activities	Working conditions
0-97.13 CHIEF CLERK I 1-26.01 PAYMASTER. 1-26.03 TIMEKEEPER.	Brief on-the-job training to learn duties of the job.	Great: Fingering, seeing... Moderate: Sitting, talking, hearing, reaching. Little: Walking, bending.	Great: Inside.
1-01.02 BOOKKEEPER II. 1-01.03 BOOKKEEPER III. 1-01.31 ACCOUNTING CLERK. 1-01.32 AUDIT CLERK. 1-01.33 RECONCILEMENT CLERK. 1-01.34 BALANCE CLERK. 1-01.44 SOCIAL-SECURITY CLERK. 1-03.02 CHECKER. 1-06.02 TELLER I. 1-06.03 TELLER, ADJUSTMENT. 1-06.04 TELLER, HEAD. 1-06.32 EXCHANGE CLERK I.	Brief on-the-job training to learn methods of recording, keeping books or checking accounts; or training to perform the various duties of bank tellers.	Great: Fingering... Moderate: Sitting, bending, reaching, seeing. Little: Lifting, pushing or pulling, handling.	Great: Inside.
1-01.05 BUDGET CLERK. 1-01.08 FOOD CONTROLLER. 1-01.35 COST CLERK II. 1-05.01 TAX CLERK I. 1-05.02 TAX CLERK II. 1-06.84 MARGIN CLERK I. 1-06.85 MARGIN CLERK II. 1-06.86 BROKERAGE CLERK II. 1-06.87 BROKERAGE CLERK III. 1-08.01 ACTUARIAL CLERK. 1-18.66 PRODUCTION CLERK II. 1-34.02 PRODUCTION ASSISTANT. EXPENDITER II. 1-36.01 STATISTICAL CLERK. 1-49.93 PROGRESS CLERK II.	Additional training to learn to prepare budgets, compute and analyze costs and expenditures, compile statistical studies, or record rate of production.	Great: Seeing, fingering... Moderate: Sitting, bending, handling. Little: Reaching, pushing or pulling, talking, hearing.	Great: Inside. Little: Noisy.
1-02.01 BOOKKEEPING-MACHINE OPERATOR I. 1-02.02 BOOKKEEPING-MACHINE OPERATOR II. 1-02.03 BOOKKEEPING-MACHINE OPERATOR III. 1-02.04 POSTING - MACHINE OPERATOR II. 1-25.02 BILLING - MACHINE OPERATOR I. 1-25.12 ADDING - MACHINE OPERATOR. 1-25.13 CALCULATING-MACHINE OPERATOR. 1-25.22 DUPLICATING-MACHINE OPERATOR I. 1-25.23 DUPLICATING-MACHINE OPERATOR II. 1-25.64 TABULATING-MACHINE OPERATOR.	Training to learn to operate office machines which may be unfamiliar.	Great: Fingering, seeing... Moderate: Sitting, bending, reaching. Little: Lifting, pushing or pulling, handling.	Great: Inside. Little: Noisy.
0-01.10 ACCOUNTANT, COST. 0-01.20 ACCOUNTANT, GENERAL. 0-01.30 ACCOUNTANT, PUBLIC. 0-01.40 ACCOUNTANT, TAX. 0-01.50 BUDGET ENGINEER. 0-01.60 AUDITOR. 0-01.70 PAY-ROLL CONTROLLER. 0-97.04 BURSAR.	Considerable additional training in accounting, auditing and statistical procedures including the making of financial statements and reports and the development of bookkeeping systems.	Great: Seeing, fingering... Moderate: Sitting, bending, reaching. Little: Walking, standing, lifting, handling, pushing or pulling, hearing, carrying, talking.	Great: Inside.

FIGURE 1. Specimen page from the Manual, *Special Aids for Placing Military Personnel*.

## SPECIAL AIDS FOR PLACING NAVY PERSONNEL IN CIVILIAN JOBS

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STOREKEEPER, SECOND CLASS  
STOREKEEPER, THIRD CLASS (1-38.01)

## Qualifications:

*Storekeeping.*—Know system of requisitioning, invoicing, issuing and accounting for clothing and other stores.*Reporting.*—Know system of making reports and keeping pay-roll accounts.*Clerical.*—Know how to write legibly, spell, and how to use typewriter and adding machine.

Related civilian occupations	Additional training required	Physical activities	Working conditions
1-04.01 CLERK, GENERAL. 1-05.01 CLERK, GENERAL OFFICE. 1-26.02 PAY-ROLL CLERK. 1-26.03 TIMEKEEPER. 1-34.01 DELIVERY CLERK II.	No technical training necessary. Must become familiar with merchandise handled, routes, freight and wage rates of commercial or business firms.	Moderate: Fingering, seeing, carrying. Little: Sitting, bending, reaching, hearing, talking.	Great: Inside. Little: Noisy.
1-34.04 RECEIVING CLERK III. 1-34.06 ROUTE-RETURN MAN. 1-34.11 ROUTER III. 1-34.13 SHIPPING CLERK I. 1-34.14 SHIPPING CLERK II. 1-34.15 SHIPPING CHECKER. 1-34.22 RETURN-TO-FACTORY CLERK. 1-49.21 PROPERTY CLERK. 1-49.22 PROPERTY CUSTODIAN.	No technical training necessary. Must become familiar with merchandise handled, routes, freight and wage rates of commercial or business firms.	Moderate: Fingering, seeing, carrying, lifting, pushing, bending, reaching, standing, handling. Little: Sitting, hearing, talking.	Great: Inside. Little: Noisy.
1-25.12 ADDING-MACHINE OPERATOR. 1-25.13 CALCULATING-MACHINE OPERATOR. 1-37.32 TYPIST. 1-37.34 CLERK-TYPIST.	No technical training necessary; brief on-the-job training to build up speed and accuracy and obtain familiarity with business forms and procedures.	Great: Fingering, seeing. Little: Sitting, bending, reaching, hearing, talking.	Great: Inside. Little: Noisy.
1-01.41 INVENTORY CLERK. 1-01.42 MATERIAL CLERK. 1-34.02 EXPEDITER II. 1-38.01 STOCK CLERK II. 1-38.03 MAGAZINE KEEPER. 1-38.04 STOCK-CONTROL CLERK. 1-38.05 TOOL CLERK.	Brief training in method of taking and recording inventory as used in individual plants.	Moderate: Fingering, seeing, carrying, lifting, pushing, bending, reaching, standing, handling. Little: Sitting, hearing, talking.	Great: Inside. Little: Noisy.

TELEGRAPHER, CHIEF  
TELEGRAPHER, FIRST CLASS  
TELEGRAPHER, SECOND CLASS  
TELEGRAPHER, THIRD CLASS

## Qualifications:

*The qualifications for all classes of telegraphers have been combined. Men in higher ratings have more detailed and thorough knowledge and greater skill.**Telegraphy.*—Know how to operate telegraphic equipment to send or receive signals or messages over long distances; know Morse and International Codes.

Related civilian occupations	Additional training required	Physical activities	Working conditions
1-41.12 TELEGRAPH OPERATOR.	No additional training.	Great: Fingering. Moderate: Sitting, seeing. Little: Reaching.	Great: Inside. Little: Noisy, electric shock.
1-41.14 JACKBOARD OPERATOR. 1-41.16 DISPATCHER XIV. 1-41.52 GAMEWELL OPERATOR.	No additional training.	Moderate: Fingering, talking (except 1-41.14), hearing. Little: Sitting, reaching, seeing.	Great: Inside.
1-37.32 TYPIST. 1-37.33 TELEGRAPHIC-TYPEWRITER OPERATOR.	Brief training in the operation of a telegraphic typewriter or an ordinary typewriter.	Great: Fingering. Moderate: Seeing. Little: Sitting, walking, reaching.	Great: Inside. Little: Noisy.

FIGURE 2. Specimen page from the Manual, *Special Aids for Placing Navy Personnel*.

are in use in the United States and foreign countries.

The original preparation of the *Dictionary* took several years and it was not possible to cover all occupations by the time it was first issued. Since its publication in 1940, supplements have been issued from time to time. The present supplement includes 4,500 definitions not found in the original document. It is estimated that six thousand jobs must be analyzed each year to keep the *Dictionary* current once all jobs have been initially covered.

In the preparation of the *Dictionary* the jobs in which the greatest numbers of workers are employed were studied first. Thus, the present *Dictionary* and its supplement are relatively more complete for clerical, sales, skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled occupations, than for professional and semiprofessional occupations. These latter groups are now being given added attention in order to round out the *Dictionary* more fully. The Division of Occupational Analysis and Manning Tables welcomes comments from the users of the *Dictionary* regarding jobs which appear not to be covered or regarding definitions which appear to need revision. Immediately in prospect is the adding of definitions of professional occupations in all industries. Also, effort is being made toward improving the coverage in the plastics industry, electrical manufacturing, and paper and pulp industries.

#### CONVERSIONS BETWEEN CIVILIAN OCCUPATIONS

**C**ONVERSIONS between civilian wartime occupations and civilian peacetime occupations are also in the process of development. These conversions are being developed on a national scale to meet nationwide needs, and they are also being prepared to meet a specific need in a given community when assistance is requested.

During the past two years over 8,000 establishments in the war effort have prepared Manning tables.<sup>5</sup> The Manning table was used chiefly with the replacement schedule as a tool for an orderly withdrawal of workers into the armed services, in order that war production would be affected to a minimum. The Manning table shows all of the jobs in the establish-

<sup>5</sup> See "Manning Table-A Personnel Blue-Print" *Occupations*, April, 1943, pp. 20-25.

ment according to the standard titles and definitions of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. The number and percentage of workers in each occupation by department and total plant is also shown, including the training time for each job. Although other items are also included, the above enumerated items for the 8,000 war establishments are necessary in the development of related occupations between war production and civilian production establishments.

For each of a number of war industries an industrial Manning table or occupational pattern has been prepared giving a composite for the industry. These show the occupations in the industry according to the titles and definitions in the *Dictionary*, including the percentage of workers in each occupation or group of related occupations. Thus, there is now available considerable information regarding the patterns of occupations in war industries. The patterns are useful in making estimates of the skills of workers to be affected by a future reduction in war production, and the industrial and plant patterns give the correct titles of occupations for which related civilian peacetime jobs must be determined. To facilitate mass interoccupational movement, tables of related jobs—called industrial job families—have been developed from the division's job analysis data. Such tables were prepared in considerable numbers to aid in conversion from peace to war and will be arranged in reverse order to aid in the transfer from war to peace.

#### MEASURING OCCUPATIONAL APTITUDES

**I**N THE PLACEMENT of individuals with limited work experience, or those who are seeking to transfer to quite different occupations, some means of estimating ability to learn the various types of work becomes essential. In the development of tests to measure occupational aptitudes, it has been the point of view of the division that such tests should be standardized and validated before they are placed in use. This requires making an analysis of the job, setting up some kind of criterion which accurately reflects the individual differences in the performance of workers, the administration of experimental batteries of tests which seem to measure the abilities required, and the final analysis whereby only those tests which

show sufficient validity are included in a test battery for experimental use. After the experimental test battery has been developed, it is then further checked by studies to determine how well it actually performs in measuring the abilities of persons to learn various occupations. Test batteries for about 120 occupations are now in use in the local offices of the United States Employment Service. However, when one considers that there are 30,000 occupations, it is apparent that it is useless to attempt to develop 30,000 different aptitude test batteries. Thus, the approach has been toward the development of general aptitude test batteries which measure the aptitudes required for a family of several occupations. Thus eventually it is believed that a battery of aptitude tests can be administered which can be scored in various ways for a large number of occupations.

Recently the problem of occupational counseling for returning servicemen and displaced war workers has shown the need for a brief general test battery covering the major occupational fields. The data gathered during the past ten years of occupational research are being analyzed to determine empirically which occupations require the same aptitudes and can, therefore, be grouped together. It is not likely that more than twenty occupational groups will be distinguished on the basis of necessary aptitudes. Since the most recent research in the testing field indicates that the measurable primary mental abilities number less than ten, it should be possible to construct a core battery consisting of one or more tests of each of these aptitudes which can be administered and scored for each of the occupational groups. A general aptitude test battery of this type will be available about January 1, 1945, and will receive wide use in the counseling program of the United States Employment Service.

#### TRADE TESTS

**I**N THE DEVELOPMENT of trade tests the Division has prepared, in addition to typing and stenographic tests, oral trade questions for 235 skilled occupations. These oral tests can be administered in the interview in from three to six minutes. They have been standardized by administering sample questions to skilled workers, helpers, apprentices, and persons in related occupations. The oral trade tests are

obviously measures of trade knowledge and therefore must be used with care, especially for job seekers who have a language handicap, or those who have through vocational training acquired some knowledge of the trade but have limited work experience.<sup>8</sup>

Variations in this type of test have been the picture and blueprint trade tests. In these the applicant is shown a picture of a tool or machine and questioned about its function and operation, or is asked about the interpretation of a blueprint. More recently there has been a development in the program of the division for the preparation and validation of written trade tests. These are longer than the oral tests and, because they make finer determinations of the individual's level of information concerning an occupation, can be used in upgrading or transfer of workers. The trade tests developed in the past few years have been largely for war occupations and have been used by the armed forces as well as by the public employment offices. Now, emphasis is again being placed on the preparation of oral trade tests for peacetime occupations, so that the skills of veterans and war workers in relation to the requirements of peacetime jobs may be more reliably estimated than by the usual interview procedure.

#### EXCHANGE OF INFORMATION

**T**HE DIVISION OF OCCUPATIONAL ANALYSIS AND Manning Tables welcomes an exchange of information with others who are developing occupational tools. The division has a reference unit containing all the job analysis reports and manning tables that have been prepared thus far. It has the correlations of various aptitude tests with many occupations and also considerable trade test materials. Occupations

\*The following are samples of the items in a test for Gyroscopic-Instrument Mechanic:

To what are the balance weights in the Directional Gyro (jyre-oh) fastened? *Gimbal ring (gimbal); Card; Dial.* (Any one is correct.)

How many coil springs are there in each gyro rotor bearing-housing of the Directional Gyro? *Four.*

What part do you adjust when there is excessive drift of one heading during the vertical test of the Directional Gyro? *Nozzle; Balance nut (horizontal nut) (drift nut) (nut on gimbal ring) (stud); Balance adjustment.* (Any one is correct.)

What instrument do you use to be sure that the rotor of the Directional Gyro is centered in the gimbal (jimb-ull) ring? *Surface gauge (height gauge); Last word indicator (indicator) (thousandth indicator).* (Either is correct.)

are catalogued on speed-sort cards so that related jobs in almost any combination can be readily developed.

During the past year about 400 persons have visited the Division to obtain training or assistance in the development or use of occupational tools. Regular two-week training institutes are conducted in the use of the materials of the Division. These are attended by persons from government agencies, the armed forces, industrial plants, schools and colleges, and from foreign countries. So many technical problems will arise in the conversion period that a free exchange of information and

techniques will be necessary in order to accomplish this vast task.

#### GENERAL REFERENCES

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W. H. Stead and W. E. Masincup, *The Occupational Research Program of the U. S. Employment Service*, Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1942.

W. H. Stead, C. L. Shartle, and Associates, *Occupational Counseling and Techniques: Their Development and Application*. New York: American Book Co., 1940.

War Manpower Commission, *Training and Reference Manual for Job Analysis*. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1944.

# Recruiting Psychologists and Psychiatrists for the Public Service

ARTHUR BURTON

THE CALIFORNIA STATE LEGISLATURE established in 1941 the California Youth Authority and the Langley Porter Clinic. The California Youth Authority, patterned after the model youth authority plan of the American Law Institute, is vested with the custody and rehabilitation of all public offenders of less than 21 years of age at the time of apprehension.<sup>1</sup> The Langley Porter Clinic, nominally under the administration of the California Department of Institutions, is a division of the University of California Medical School and is a neuro-psychiatric clinic given over to research, diagnosis, and treatment. The establishment of these agencies created the necessity of recruiting a considerable number of psychologists and psychiatrists to fill staff positions under civil service.

Psychologists and psychiatrists in the California state service are employed primarily in correctional schools, mental hospitals, institutions for the mentally deficient, and out-patient clinics in staff and administrative capacities. This is probably a typical pattern found in the majority of comparable jurisdictions. While psychologists are also employed as personnel technicians, statisticians, and in research capacities, it is only as clinical psychologists that they become a distinctive group as far as recruitment is concerned. This paper will therefore, as far as the psychologist is concerned, be limited in its discussion to the clinical psychologist.

## RECRUITING EXPERIENCE IN CALIFORNIA

A NATIONWIDE EXAMINATION for Chief Psychiatrist, California Youth Authority, was given September 4, 1943. The entrance salary

was \$420 per month and the minimum requirements called for five years of general psychiatric experience with at least two years of the five in a criminal court psychiatric clinic, correctional or penal institution, or in mental hygiene activities. The customary M.D. degree and the physician and surgeon's license were also required. Eight applications were received—four from California, two from New York, and two from Chicago. All the applicants were accepted and all passed the written examination. Three failed to appear for the oral interview, held in California, four were eliminated by the oral interviewing board as unsuitable. The one who qualified was placed on the eligible list, but refused appointment.

On January 6, 1944, a nationwide examination for Senior Clinical Psychologist was given for vacancies in the diagnostic clinics of the Youth Authority and for expected vacancies at the Langley Porter Clinic in San Francisco. The entrance salary was \$240 a month. The minimum requirements were an M.A. degree and two years of paid experience in clinical psychology, or a Ph.D. degree and one year of experience. Seven applicants applied and six were accepted. All were from California. One did not take the written examination, two failed to appear for the oral interview, and three refused appointment after qualifying for the eligible list.

As a result of these and more or less similar experiences in recruiting clinical personnel, we were interested in determining whether other public service agencies were encountering difficulties similar to ours and whether a more definitive statement could be made as to the available supply of such professional personnel and the most efficient means of recruiting them. Only by analysis of the situation was it possible to determine whether any normal methods of recruiting might succeed.

<sup>1</sup>With certain minor exceptions as, for example, those delinquents granted probation, sentenced to death or life imprisonment.

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## EXPERIENCE IN OTHER JURISDICTIONS

**I**NQUIRIES WERE SENT to each of the state jurisdictions listed by the Civil Service Assembly in its 1940 census of civil service agencies and to those city and county jurisdictions which could be expected to have mental hospitals, correctional schools, clinics, or other similar institutions in their classified service. The inquiries went to twenty-four jurisdictions, of which 17 or 71 per cent responded. Analysis of the replies of the 17 jurisdictions revealed a small number in which no psychological or psychiatric classes were included in their service, or where there was no recent experience in recruiting for such positions. The remaining replies fell into two categories: (a) those reporting extreme difficulty or impossibility of recruitment; and (b) those reporting little or no difficulty.

Typical of those reporting difficult recruitment is the following response. "We have experienced considerable difficulty in obtaining sufficient applications to exercise real selection. Our examinations have been publicized by mailing announcements to colleges and hospitals. We have sent notices out of state freely and waived residence requirements without materially increasing the number of applications. Such responses as we have had to our publicity has been the result of careful revision of our mailing lists."

Representative of the comments from jurisdictions reporting little or no difficulty is the following excerpt: "Our first attempt to recruit psychologists for two vacancies . . . was restricted to state residents and no clinical training was required. It brought in about a dozen applications and eight (seven women and one man) finally took the examination. Four of the women were incumbents qualifying for the job. After the two vacancies were filled and the four qualifying candidates had also been certified, a second announcement was made for a psychologist examination, this time on a nation-wide basis. . . . Expecting a large response to such a recruiting effort, we set our standards rather high, insisting on a degree from an accredited school with a major in psychology and some clinical experience (not teaching alone). . . . We received about 50 applications in all, but some were late and nine were rejected as not having the necessary ex-

perience or training, leaving 36 who were eligible to take the examination. These accepted candidates were widely distributed over the country from eighteen different states, necessitating seventeen different centers for the examination."

## THE CURRENT EMPLOYMENT RESERVOIR

**I**N THE FACE of the generally accepted opinion that there are no clinical personnel available for the public service, it is revealing that a number of jurisdictions were found that were able to fill their needs. What exactly is the state of the labor market in regard to these professional groups? A recently completed survey by the Office of Psychological Personnel<sup>2</sup> throws light upon this problem in the case of the psychologist. Late in 1943, questionnaires were sent to all members of national, regional, and local societies of psychologists, to all who had registered with the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel or the Office of Psychological Personnel, and to others available from lists of military personnel. In all, 4,553 psychologists were located, including all the members of the American Psychological Association and the American Association of Applied Psychology, and all others who were qualified for membership in either organization (Ph.D. in psychology, or employment in a psychological field after one or more years of graduate work).<sup>3</sup> The accompanying table indicates that 457 psychologists were employed in 1941 in such agencies as clinics, correctional schools, and mental hospitals, while 465 were employed in similar capacities in 1944. This is an actual increase of a fraction of one per cent. There were, however, 51 fewer male psychologists employed in 1944 than in 1941—a reduction from 58 to 46 per cent of the respective totals. At the same time, there was a 75 per cent increase in psychologists at hospitals and custodial institutions.

<sup>2</sup> An agency of the Emergency Committee in Psychology of the National Research Council.

<sup>3</sup> Donald G. Marquis, "The Mobilization of Psychologists for War Service," *Psychological Bulletin*, July, 1944, pp. 469-73. While not all clinical psychologists are members of either the APA or the AAAP, or have an equivalent in training and experience, it can be presumed that those individuals who cannot meet the standards of membership of either of these organizations would probably not be qualified for most clinical positions in public jurisdictions or would probably be eliminated in competition with better qualified psychologists.

EMPLOYMENT OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGISTS IN JANUARY 1941 AND 1944<sup>a</sup>

Place of Employment	1941			1944		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Clinics, Guidance Centers	100	115	215	79	123	202
Prisons, Correctional Schools	76	20	96	53	27	80
Hospitals, Custodial Institutions	87	59	146	80	103	183
<b>Total</b>	<b>263</b>	<b>194</b>	<b>457</b>	<b>212</b>	<b>253</b>	<b>465</b>

<sup>a</sup> Abstracted from Donald G. Marquis, "The Mobilization of Psychologists for War Service," *op. cit.*

From these figures it appears that some supply of clinical psychologists has continued to be available for civilian positions during the war. While many clinical psychologists have left their positions for military and other war service, they have generally been replaced by recruits (predominantly women) from faculties, graduate schools, and other sources, but having less clinical experience, in most cases, than the departed personnel.

INFORMATION regarding psychiatrists is neither so clear nor so promising. Colonel William C. Menninger states that nearly 26 per cent of the membership of the American Psychiatric Association are in the armed forces.<sup>4</sup> Thirty-five, or more than 14 per cent, of the 245 active members of the American Psychoanalytic Association are in the armed services.<sup>5</sup> Of the 255 psychiatrists who are members of the American Orthopsychiatric Association 58, or 23 per cent, are in military service and more than 11 per cent of the 1326 Diplomates of the American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology are likewise serving. The percentage of psychiatrists in the armed forces is no higher than for other professional groups, such as psychologists. But, when it is considered that the number of psychiatrists has never been adequate to meet the needs of the population, such withdrawals from civilian activities are significant. Even under the priority and urgency of military needs, the Surgeon General has been unable to recruit sufficient psychiatrists for the army.

It is apparent from the above data that psychologists have continued to be available for public service jurisdictions during the war, albeit they are predominately women and some-

what less experienced. On the other hand, the shortage of psychiatrists is a real one. It follows then that those jurisdictions which could not recruit psychologists employed inappropriate recruitment techniques, rejected or could not use women psychologists, failed to lower entrance standards to suitable levels, or offered unattractive salaries, job locations, or working conditions. Where satisfactory psychiatrists were obtained by these jurisdictions, a combination of efficient recruitment and better than average employment conditions prevailed, or individual idiosyncrasies and wants were in some way satisfied. With regard to both professions, it is apparent that public personnel agencies need to give serious consideration to the recruiting methods used and the sources of these skills, if the essential needs for psychologists and psychiatrists are to be satisfied. Where recruitment planning does not result in the immediate acquisition of all the needed personnel, such planning will facilitate recruitment when, in the postwar period, clinical personnel are more plentiful.

## RECRUITMENT CONSIDERATIONS

RECRUITMENT, defined as "that process through which suitable candidates are induced to compete for appointments in the public service,"<sup>6</sup> is not a simple process. It is essentially an attempt to create a balance between the needs or desires of prospective employees and the means of a jurisdiction for the satisfaction of these needs and desires. It is not always possible to define these needs or desires with any great precision or to delineate the modes of satisfaction. These limitations in definition and prediction are to some degree responsible for our present day "shotgun" methods of recruitment.

<sup>4</sup> William C. Menninger, "Psychiatry and the Army," *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic*, May, 1944, p. 89.

<sup>5</sup> Communication from Dr. Robert P. Knight, August 9, 1944.

<sup>6</sup> *Recruiting Applicants for the Public Service*, Civil Service Assembly Committee Report (Chicago: The Assembly, 1942), p. 1.

There are job factors which serve to satisfy an applicant's needs and thus facilitate recruitment and other factors which do not motivate him. Some apply generally to all individuals and others function only for specific individuals or groups. Thus pay, working conditions, and job location influence recruitment generally regardless of occupational class; while opportunity for research or collaboration with an outstanding psychiatrist may be a stimulus only to certain psychologists and psychiatrists. Efficient recruitment capitalizes on both kinds of rewards.

**T**HE AMOUNT of remuneration for a given set of duties is, of course, a primary recruitment factor. Workers are attracted to those positions where, everything else being equal, the salary is greatest. Present salary rates for clinical and administrative psychiatric personnel in public service jurisdictions are considerably less than earnings in private practice and less than in most private psychiatric clinics or hospitals. Even where salary rates are comparable, psychiatrists are little inclined to uproot without a considerable monetary increase, or unless special conditions prevail. In addition, the examination procedure is frequently regarded as an unnecessary obstacle, particularly if the psychiatrist is certificated by the American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology or has had long years of experience.

In the desire to attract psychiatric talent, jurisdictions have sought ways and means of increasing the salary rate for these classes. In addition to special cost of living increases, recruiting has sometimes been done at the maximum of the salary range. This procedure is not recommended since it defeats the purpose of the pay plan and ultimately leads to employee dissatisfaction. Jurisdictions cannot generally hope to compete with the remuneration obtainable from private practice or endowed clinics and hospitals. The best recruiting conditions that can be attained consist of a generally attractive public service, salaries sufficient to attract and hold promising men interested in a public service career, and opportunities for promotion to administrative positions or for achievement in research.

Salaries of clinical psychologists in public service jurisdictions are on the whole relatively

more attractive than are those of psychiatrists. This is so because the traditional outlet for the graduate school product in psychology is the teaching of psychology and this field is considerably underpaid. Psychologists in clinics, private agencies, and hospitals have in the past been considered ancillary to the psychiatrist, and, in terms of salary, have been bracketed with the social workers — an underpaid profession — rather than with the medical men. This should not, however, be construed as implying that the public service salaries for psychologists are at their optimum value for recruitment purposes.

Residence requirements are generally considered an arbitrary restriction to recruitment. In the recruitment of clinical personnel it can result in the selection and retention of men of inferior or limited training, and particularly so in states or counties of small population where medical schools, hospitals, and clinics are limited or entirely absent. In recruiting candidates for such rare skills as those of the psychologist and psychiatrist, residence requirements should certainly be waived, whatever the jurisdiction's general practice may be.<sup>7</sup>

#### METHODS OF FINDING APPLICANTS

**G**IVEN CERTAIN CONDITIONS of recruitment, (viz. the state of the labor market, salary rate, promotional opportunity, conditions and location of employment, and residence, citizenship, and age requirements), what are the best sources and media for the recruitment of psychologists and psychiatrists? For these professional fields recruitment programs may be considered in four categories, not mutually exclusive.

Probably the least effective and most widely used method of securing applicants is the general mailing list. This procedure is usually confined to the mailing of examination announcements to post offices, United States Employment Service offices, libraries, school placement bureaus or counselors, operating departments, and to those public buildings

<sup>7</sup> It has been our experience, where residence has been waived, that unless competitors are examined and interviewed with little inconvenience or expense to themselves, (i.e. in their own or neighboring community), waiver of residence is only of limited recruitment value. For this reason, every effort should be made to examine and interview applicants in central locations not too distant from their place of residence.

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where arrangements have been made for posting announcements. Included under this heading is the routine news brief mailed to newspapers for publishing without follow-up. This procedure is usually an inefficient and expensive means of recruiting clinical personnel. While psychologists and psychiatrists may frequent public places, as do other individuals, and may even be registered with employment offices, the probability of recruiting such individuals by these methods is on a long chance basis, and will therefore often be inadequate.

The second type of recruitment consists of transmitting the employment information by whatever means feasible to organizations, institutions, universities, clinics, hospitals, or medical schools having contact with or employing psychologists or psychiatrists. Primary media in this approach are the national and local associations of psychologists and psychiatrists which include in their memberships almost all of the recognized clinicians. The following is a list of the national psychological and psychiatric associations and the addresses of their secretaries:<sup>8</sup>

American Psychological Association Inc., (P)  
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

American Association for Applied Psychology (P)  
650 South Hall, Columbia University, New York

National Committee for Mental Hygiene (P, Ps, Psy)  
1790 Broadway, New York City

American Orthopsychiatric Association (P, Ps, Psy)  
1790 Broadway, New York City

American Psychiatric Association (Psy)  
9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City

American Psychoanalytic Association (Ps)  
8-259 General Motors Building, Detroit, Michigan

American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology (Psy)  
1028 Connecticut Avenue N.W., Washington, D. C.

Each of these associations publishes a directory or yearbook listing its membership, which may be obtained free or for a nominal charge.<sup>9</sup> These directories not only list the personnel and their addresses, but invariably give significant details of training and experience. Most of the directories have a breakdown of membership by city or state which facilitates re-

gional recruitment where residence is not waived. Also listed are regional affiliated or non-affiliated societies, which are fertile sources of localized recruitment; for example, the Illinois Association of Applied Psychology, the Western Psychological Association, the Kansas Psychiatric Society, etc. Members in regional societies are usually but not always members of national organizations.

Each of the national associations listed publishes one or more journals. These journals are distributed free to members of the association as a part of the membership fee and are sold to subscribers, libraries, and other interested individuals. They constitute one of the best media for the recruitment of clinical personnel. Journals containing "news and notes" sections in which vacancies in clinical positions have been listed include the following:

*Psychological Bulletin* (Monthly except August and September), American Psychological Association. Editor: Dr. John E. Anderson, University of Minnesota.

*Journal of Consulting Psychology* (Bimonthly), American Association for Applied Psychology. Editor: Mrs. J. P. Symonds, 525 W. 120th Street, New York City.

*American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* (Quarterly), American Orthopsychiatry Association. Editor: Dr. Lawrence G. Lowrey, 1790 Broadway, New York City.

*Mental Hygiene* (Quarterly), National Committee for Mental Hygiene. Editor: Dr. George S. Stevenson, 1790 Broadway, New York City.

*American Journal of Psychiatry* (Bimonthly), American Psychiatric Association. Editor: Dr. Clarence B. Farrar, 111 St. George Street, Toronto, Canada.

The number of psychological and psychiatric journals is legion and many of the editors would undoubtedly be interested in bringing vacancies in the field to the attention of their readers. The possibilities in this approach are manifold but it must be remembered that editors are primarily concerned in maintaining and satisfying the interest of their readers rather than in assuming an employment function. Paper and space is scarce and a long, poorly worded announcement is apt to be thrown aside. There is also the problem of coordinating recruitment and examination dates with publishing deadlines.

The California State Personnel Board was recently successful in recruiting two outstanding clinical psychologists through the Office of Psychological Personnel, 2101 Constitution Avenue, Washington, D. C. This agency was

<sup>8</sup> The symbol "P" denotes a psychological association, "Ps" a psychoanalytic association, "Psy" a psychiatric association, and combinations of the symbols indicate associations open to the indicated subgroups.

<sup>9</sup> The current membership list of the American Orthopsychiatric Association is contained in the July, 1944, issue of the *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*.

established by the National Research Council to aid in the proper placement of psychologists in the war effort. It also functions as a placement bureau for any psychologist seeking employment and will gladly send applications on file to any interested jurisdiction. Another organization, the Psychological Corporation, 525 Fifth Avenue, New York, does not maintain an employment exchange but is available for consultation on selection problems and is a key psychological organization on the East Coast.

IMPORTANT SOURCES of recruits for psychiatric positions are the schools of medicine (especially those offering graduate study), and hospitals or clinics approved for psychiatric internship. Letters or announcements directed to such institutions are best sent to the dean of the medical school, the superintendent of the clinic or hospital, and to key staff members. Lists of medical schools and of hospitals approved for internships can be obtained from any state board of medical examiners, or by consulting the American Medical Directory, published by the American Medical Association. Similarly, in the search for psychologists, the chairmen of departments of psychology in universities and colleges should be canvassed for possible applicants.<sup>10</sup> There frequently are, at such institutions, individuals who are completing work on graduate degrees and are seeking placement. Where no such graduates are available, the departmental chairman may know of former graduates or other psychologists who are seeking employment.

The third method of recruitment is a corollary of the preceding method in which associations and institutions are approached for assistance. In essence it involves the direct contact of possible applicants by one means or another. The most practical expression of this method is the mailing of an examination announcement, with or without a form letter, to

<sup>10</sup> A list of American colleges and universities and their constituent departments is found in *American Universities and Colleges* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1940).

every psychologist or psychiatrist listed in the directories or to names gathered from other sources. In the California State Personnel Board examination for Assistant Superintendent of the Langley Porter Clinic, each Diplomate of the American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology who was not in the military service was sent an announcement. Since one of the entrance requirements for this class was membership in the American Board, all eligible candidates were reached at once. Direct approach to individual competitors by any means that may be used is apt to be expensive, but where the labor supply is deficient and key positions must be filled, this is often a good means of finding men.

An interesting example of thorough recruitment, using both this and the preceding methods, was that followed by a Middle Western jurisdiction for the class of Psychologist I. A news item appeared in the *Psychological Bulletin*; the Office of Psychological Personnel and the Psychological Corporation were informed; mimeographed letters and examination announcements were sent to the heads of the psychology departments of all colleges in the United States having enrollments of 500 or more; and a similar form letter and announcement went to all members of the American Association of Applied Psychology.

Finally, sources of information regarding possible applicants may exist in the operating departments for which recruits are sought. It is often helpful, for this as well as other reasons, to collaborate with operating departments in planning and executing the recruitment program. Correctional school and hospital and clinic superintendents usually have some idea where clinical personnel may be found and may even know of specific individuals. Such individuals can furthermore refer the personnel agency to other key men who may have suggestions for recruitment. Frequently, departmental personnel, through their group professional activities, are in a position to render informed as well as interested service in the search for new professional staff members.

# Record Keeping in the Merit System Office

JOHN C. KIDNEIGH

SUCCESSFUL personnel administration under the merit system depends not only upon the competence and integrity of the merit system staff, but also upon the nature and adequacy of the methods for recording and summarizing the continuing operations of the central personnel office. While the record keeping needs of public personnel agencies differ substantially because of size, geographical and jurisdictional coverage, legal requirements, and procedural patterns, the record keeping needs among smaller personnel agencies have striking similarities. It is the purpose of this article to stimulate thought about such needs in a small personnel agency having jurisdiction over approximately one thousand employees.

## WHY KEEP RECORDS?

CIVIL SERVICE LAWS often specifically require the maintenance of personnel records and indicate the general content of such systems. A statute creating a merit system or a rule or regulation having the force of law, even if it should fail expressly so to provide, imposes by implication a duty to keep adequate records. There is the ever present necessity that merit system actions be reviewable, whether by dissatisfied applicants or legislative committees. Were there no likelihood of review for these reasons, the personnel administrator would still wish to keep complete records so that he might know at any moment the status of operations. They provide him a business like way of taking inventory.

Merit system records serve as evidence of the transactions of authorized merit system officials. Frequently in merit system offices the steps taken in the daily performance of official work must later be proved in an administra-

tive or judicial proceeding. Records of facts and transactions are, therefore, in part designed to afford a source for evidence of the official acts performed. For merit system records to have official status they must be written, and made by an authorized public officer, although the authority of the officer need not be derived from an express statutory provision. The record system constitutes the principal evidence that obligations have been discharged. In the case of appeals, litigation, investigation, audit of operations, or any like scrutiny of merit system administration, the records should reveal all official actions, including cases in which administrative discretion was used, and the general method of administration.

Though the emphasis should be upon the positive rather than the policing aspects of public personnel administration, the central personnel agency is usually charged with the maintenance of controls that will assure conformity to the laws, rules and regulations. The record system is one of the primary tools by which this control is exercised.

A VERY IMPORTANT REASON for accurate recording is its direct bearing upon the substantial rights of applicants and employees. The rights of applicants relate to admission to examinations, equity of rating, equality of opportunity, and consideration for appointment if the achieved rating is sufficiently high. The rights of employees are connected with tenure, pay, appeal from administrative actions, and other matters that may be provided under the rules. Although the rights of an employee exist without formal records, these rights are proved more readily by the presence of substantiating data maintained in personnel records designed to safeguard them.

Records designed for operating convenience can contribute measurably to efficient adminis-

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tration. If the record system is comprehensive as to content and gives easy access to pertinent and current information, it follows naturally that time will be saved, administrative decisions expedited, cost of operations kept within desirable limits, and increasingly better service given. It is highly important that the personnel agency carefully review the official requirements covering the differences in status, preference for appointment, types of examinations to be conducted, rights of promotion or transfer, and other factors that determine what forms should be used and what data should be recorded on them.

Good records are also essential to sound administrative planning. A conscientious personnel administrator searches for an estimate of future trends in order to plan wisely. These trends can be predicted only after a careful analysis of past and present factors in his administration. The records are the source of data upon which such an analysis must be based.

In addition to these immediate uses in the merit system, the records are a source for data which can be used for the broader purposes of adding to the sum of knowledge about personnel administration. To this end it is important that a record keeping system be so designed that it will yield comparable data from period to period. Standardization of record keeping as between jurisdictions would greatly assist comparison of data for purposes of evaluating common problems. Uniformity between jurisdictions of course should not be urged at the expense of other values. It is imperative that the record system be re-evaluated periodically for the purpose of keeping forms up to date so that contemporary administrative research is made possible, collection of unnecessary and outmoded data is avoided, and the record keeping of the agency is geared to essential current needs.

Finally, public confidence will be strengthened if the agency is able to give prompt and complete answers to queries from operating officials, members of the legislature, employees under the system, eligibles seeking employment, or interested citizens. Reports to the public summarizing pertinent personnel data increase public acceptance and understanding of merit system administration. In many sit-

uations good records contribute to satisfactory public relations.

#### ELEMENTS OF GOOD RECORD KEEPING

**T**HREE ARE numerous acceptable ways of maintaining adequate records. Any record system, however, must cover all pertinent continuing operations of the personnel office. Beyond this there are types of records which could prove of some value but are not absolutely essential to day-by-day operation. This article is concerned with a general discussion of systems which record and summarize the continuing operations of a personnel office and which are indispensable parts of adequate merit system record keeping.<sup>1</sup> It is believed that the systems described are sufficiently inclusive to furnish all data necessary for the verification of details and the summarization of operations. These are requirements which the public has a right to expect the public personnel agency to meet.

It is recognized that the grouping which follows is arbitrary and that there is close interrelationship among these groups. It is also recognized that this discussion omits those records which are connected with finance and accounting operations. However, financial accounting differs sufficiently from other merit system records to warrant its exclusion from this discussion.

#### RECORDS OF POLICY AND PROCEDURES

**T**HE MAIN OUTLINE of merit system policy is laid down in laws, rules, regulations, official interpretations, judicial precedents, and administrative determinations and practices. Usually, however, the more specific details of policy are stated in manuals of procedure. The established methods of handling each of the several operations of the merit system are also described in manuals. These instructions standardize and simplify the work load, and

<sup>1</sup> There are other ways in which this subject of record keeping in a merit system office might be discussed. For example, one way would be a discussion of records as incidental to the description of each of the functional processes in the merit system. Another would be by a compilation and analysis of all forms that are in common use in merit system offices. Still another way would be a process of selecting the best features from among a number of merit system agencies with the presentation of a model or ideal method of record keeping based upon a predetermined method of operation that would synchronize with the proposed record system.

constitute policy in that they tell how the activity should be performed. The operations for which policy and procedure summaries should be prepared include at least the following:

1. Recruitment.
2. Publicity and public relations program.
3. The processing of applications for admission to examinations.
4. Writing and filing examination items.
5. Examination construction and compilation.
6. The administration of examinations, including monitors' instructions for the various kinds of examinations, such as performance tests, speed tests, oral tests, and written examinations.
7. Rating of training and experience.
8. Examination scoring.
9. Examination analysis, including item analysis and analysis of reliability and validity.
10. Establishment of registers.
11. Requisitioning personnel and certifying eligibles.
12. Circularization for availability of eligibles.
13. Recording and clearing personnel actions.
14. Audit and certification of payrolls.
15. Appeals procedure and precedents resulting from appeals decisions.<sup>2</sup>
16. The efficiency rating plan and its administration.
17. The procedure for maintaining records on the currency of the classification plan.
18. The filing system and procedures for filing, maintenance of records and instructions in the use of forms.

Taken as a whole the foregoing outline of a manual of procedures describes the policy of the agency. In other words, the manual lays down the method to be employed in the discharge of any given operation and describes how it should be done.

**P**OLOGY IS NOT STATIC, however. There must be provision for both a definite knowledge of current policy to expedite and make rational present administration, and a record of any change in policy so that the policy of the agency at any given time on any given point can be definitely determined. An adequate record of policy should be organized under functional topical headings with all utterances of policy on any given point in one place, so that quick and ready reference may be made to the law or to any other official statements or amplifications of policy that pertain to any given problem. In addition, the record system should provide for a chronological history of change of policy from

time to time under each of these functional topics. Equity and consistency of administration are thus made possible.

In addition to the records of policy, or "how it should be done," there must be a system of records which summarizes the way in which each policy was put into effect, that is, "how it actually *was* done." Some agencies have found the use of a log book very helpful. This log contains entries in order of time covering every act of the merit system office, with cross reference to those files in which are maintained the full accounting of the detail of operations. For example, the entries in the log book would indicate the release of announcements concerning an examination for a given class, the date the examination was held, and the date the register was established. Each of these entries would refer to a given examination file, which in turn would contain all the detail on the given examination, including such things as a list of applicants, a frequency distribution of scores, the transformation formulas used in the translation of raw scores to final scores, a list of the examination centers used, a list of monitors, an inventory of examination supplies used at each center, and so on. Another entry in the log might indicate the receipt of a requisition for personnel and the issuance of a certificate of eligibles. These entries would refer to the file containing all the requests for certification from the operating agencies, all the certificates issued in response to these requests, supplementary or amended certifications, and other data necessary to clear or terminate the certificates.

#### RECORDS OF INDIVIDUALS

**T**HE RECORD of individuals<sup>3</sup> generally consists of two main parts: a system of file folders (one for each individual) containing official papers, such as application forms, examination papers, personnel action forms, and correspondence; and a system of records, usually a card index, which summarizes all pertinent facts in convenient form and sequence. It is with the latter that this article is concerned.

Relationships differ between the merit office and applicants for examinations, eligibles, and employees in the operating agencies. This

<sup>2</sup>Time and thought expended on this procedure will reward the effort. Reviewability is particularly important here because the employee must know how to make an appeal; the appeals body must know what steps to observe; and the personnel administrator must have ready access to all precedent-establishing decisions.

<sup>3</sup>"Individual" is used to designate applicant, eligible, employee, and former employee.

significant difference in relationship should be recognized in the system of records. The card index upon which the records of individuals is to be maintained should, therefore, consist of three parts:

1. *The Master Index Card or Examination Record Card*, which should be a record of all pertinent data from the time application for admission to an examination is received until the name is placed on the final eligible register, or is otherwise disposed of;
2. *The Register Card*, which should record all actions from the placing of an individual's name on an eligible register to appointment or other disposition;
3. *The Roster or Service Record Card*, which should be a summarization of all personnel actions from the date of entry on duty as employee to separation.

Some personnel agencies have attempted to combine these records into fewer than three systems of card indices. Such combinations have usually proved unsatisfactory; they ignore the fact that there are essentially three different kinds of relationships and process involved. These relationships should not be mixed or confused by poor design or faulty record keeping organization. Effort will be made in the following paragraphs to bring out the essential differences in these relationships.

*The Master Index Card System.* This system contains cards for all persons who have ever filed an application with the personnel agency. Some agencies maintain only one card for each person; others maintain one card for each person for each examination program. Usually these cards are alphabetically arranged. If the applicant file folders are numbered and maintained in chronological order, the master index card carries the file number so that ready reference from the master cards, alphabetically arranged, can be made to the applicant file folders, numerically arranged. The minimum essential items of information to be recorded on this card vary from agency to agency. All merit systems should probably keep at least the following information:

1. The full name of the applicant;
2. The full address of the applicant, with sufficient space allowed to provide for entries showing change of address;
3. The date of the examination program;
4. The class title of the examination or examinations applied for;
5. Indication of the acceptance or rejection of the application for each examination;
6. The examination identification number assigned to the applicant;

7. Scores achieved for each of the several parts of the examination;

8. The combined final rating;

9. The rank achieved on the eligible register (This entry will serve as a cross reference to the Register Card System);

10. Indication that appropriate notices have been sent the applicant (e.g., on the acceptance or rejection of his application, notice to appear for the examination, and notice of final rating);

11. Agency and position to which appointed (This entry provides a cross reference to the employee service record card for those applicants who became employees).

*The Register Card System.* This system contains a card for each name on each final eligible register, arranged according to the rank standing by final ratings in the examination. This card summarizes the record of the eligible from placement on the eligible register until the day of appointment, or until the expiration of the register if the particular eligible is never appointed from that register. Three kinds of items are essential eligible register information in every central personnel agency: (1) identifying information consisting of full name, sex, file number, full address (with provision for recording change of address), final rating and rank standing of the eligible on the particular register (with a showing of rank standing on any sub-register if sub-registers are required or permitted under the system), and register title corresponding to the examination or class of position title; (2) record of availability with provision for chronological entries to indicate the date the eligible declared or changed his availability with respect to time, location, or salary; and (3) certification record showing upon which certificates the name of the particular eligible has appeared with provision for chronological entries of the date of certification, the department or agency to whom certified, the status of the position offered, the certificate number, and the date and action of the appointing authority.

*The Employee Service Record System.* Under this system a card for each employee in the agencies under the merit system is maintained, usually arranged by agency and pay-roll order so as to facilitate the payroll review or audit. In many respects this is the most important of all records because it summarizes the essential facts in the record of persons who have acquired employment rights under the merit

system. It is therefore important that care be taken in the design of this card and that it be kept accurately and on a current basis.

In addition to identifying information such as the name, sex, and address of the employee, the roster or employee service record card should contain at least the following items of information:

1. The agency employing the employee;
2. The effective date of any personnel action affecting the employee;
3. The type of action involved, (e.g., original appointment, promotion, salary advancement, salary adjustment, transfer, demotion, reinstatement, suspension, expiration of appointment, dismissal, leave of absence, layoff, military leave, retirement, or resignation);
4. The certification or transaction number and date;
5. The status of the employee (e.g., probationary, permanent, emergency, temporary, intermittent, provisional, or war-duration);
6. The salary rate and the amount paid the employee, also any bonus payments above the base rate and any deductions for annuity or retirement funds;
7. The class of position to which the employee is appointed;
8. The position within that class to which the employee is appointed, usually identified by number assigned to each position;
9. The employee's periodic service rating scores and the dates of the various ratings.

The successful maintenance of the employee service record depends in no small degree upon the device used to report to the central personnel agency actions as they occur. This personnel action report form should be designed to synchronize with the employee service record card.<sup>4</sup>

#### THE POSITION RECORDS

THE RECORD OF POSITIONS properly includes a card for each established position in the agencies under the merit system, arranged by agencies and pay roll order so as to facilitate comparison with the service record card system and also for comparison with the agency pay-roll. Some agencies have found it helpful to maintain a duplicate set of these records arranged by class of position so that vacancies by class title as well as by agency are more easily identified. This method also facilitates finding all employees in the next lower classes, with or without regard to agency lines, when promotions to vacancies are being considered.

<sup>4</sup> See "The Preparation and Use of Personnel Forms," by Robert I. Biren, *Public Personnel Review*, April 1943, pp. 110-117.

The record of positions must be based upon the classification plan. The agency responsible for the administration of the classification plan must maintain the record of positions, and if the central personnel agency is not the designated authority, it should maintain an identical file. One method of assuring the currency of the classification plan consists of a periodic resurvey of all positions. Another way is to record changes of duties and responsibilities as they occur, with a reallocation of particular positions or a revision of the classification plan whenever appropriate. The success of this method depends in great measure upon an adequate reporting system, so that when a change of duty or responsibility actually occurs a report will be made promptly to the central personnel office.

Whichever of the two methods is used in maintaining the currency of the classification plan, the following kinds of information should be contained on each card:

1. Identifying information consisting of the name of the agency and the subdivision where the position exists, the dates the position was established and abolished, the salary range and its effective date, and sufficient space to provide for entries of changes of salary rate and the effective dates thereof;
2. Allocation information consisting of a brief listing of the significant duties, the class to which the position is allocated, and the date of allocation, with space for chronological entries as any of these factors change;
3. A record of the occupants of the position, consisting at least of the name of the employee, the file number of the employee, the status of the employee (that is, whether probationary, permanent, provisional, emergency, temporary, or war-duration while filling this position), the salary paid the employee on this job, the date of appointment to and separation from this position, and the reason for separation, arranged so that chronological entries under these headings can be made as different employees fill the position.

In addition to records of individual positions that make it possible to analyze positions for purposes of comparison, it is essential that there be methods by which any given position can be analyzed in relation to its place in the total agency position structure. This suggests that a system of records consisting of organizational charts, responsibility charts, work flow diagrams, and other records of an over-all type should not be overlooked. This presupposes sound agency organization structure with lines of authority and responsibility clearly indicated.

**THE VALUE OF RECORDS**

MERIT SYSTEM ADMINISTRATORS who have sought expert advice on the design and installation of record keeping systems have found that it pays. The best results usually come from careful designing by the agency's own staff with some consultative assistance. This must be accompanied by a painstaking analysis of legal and policy requirements and a thorough review of the work flow of each merit system process.

Record keeping in the merit system office is not the most important of all central personnel agency functions, but it is safe to say that all

important and substantive responsibilities with which the central personnel office is charged are contingent upon a record keeping system adequate as to design, housing, cross reference, form, currency, and accuracy. Usually there is a high correlation between successful merit system administration and good records. Without adequate basic records it is impossible to insure the reviewability of the merit system. The public personnel administrator who meticulously maintains such a system of records is in a position to show that his administration has been scrupulous in its adherence to merit principles.

# Personnel Administration in a Government War Plant—A Case Study

MARIAN DRAKE HALL

**I**N ALL PARTS of the country there sprawl today war plants that have come into being as part of the mammoth armament program. Some of these plants manufacture arms, equipment, or explosives; others store ammunition and supplies. All possible combinations of public and private ownership and operation have been represented in these installations; and many of the war plants owned and operated by the federal government have presented novel problems in public management, especially in personnel administration. In the latter category, dearth of manpower, questions of wages and hours, industrial hazards, all have had to be overcome, so far as possible, under the stress of need for swift action and within the framework of federal personnel rules. The purpose of this article is to record a sample of this special phase of wartime public personnel administration by describing the problems encountered and the means of solution contrived at one government war plant.<sup>1</sup>

## MANPOWER PROBLEMS

**S**HORTAGE OF LABOR has been the most crucial of all personnel problems. This plant, like so many others, is situated in an isolated spot. The largest community within one hundred miles is a town of 3,300. Thirty per cent of all men from 18 to 45 years of age in this town have been claimed by the armed forces of our country. Also, in season, all available hands are put to work helping on the farms and in food-processing factories, the chief sources of income in this region. Moreover, nearby plants operated by other arms of the

<sup>1</sup> The plant referred to in this article is a medium-size plant located in the West. For reasons of security, the name and location of the plant and the specific nature of its activities have been omitted.

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government are paying skilled and unskilled labor in accordance with a scale of wages exceeding that permitted this plant by higher authority.<sup>2</sup>

There are two methods of increasing the labor supply—by adding to the numbers on the rolls<sup>3</sup> and by putting to more effective use the existing manpower. Vigorous measures to recruit employees have been pursued by the personnel department. In cooperation with the War Manpower Commission and the United States Civil Service Commission, representatives of the plant make special trips into distant communities. Leaflets advertising employment at the highest rates permitted are distributed and conferences are held with prospective recruits. Transportation from place of recruitment to the plant is provided. Even credit for meals has been advanced by the federal credit union at this base. Needless to say, intense competition for labor among war industries has prevented complete success in recruiting personnel at this facility.

Special arrangements for this plant to recruit seasonal workers were made with one of the large food-processing companies which has factories in several nearby towns. Since activity at the factories usually lasts from October to December, inclusive, workers are available for jobs at the defense plant for the remaining nine months. Seniority rights of those employees taking advantage of this plan are in no way affected. To protect the private concern, needed workers are returned to the factories upon application to either the personnel department of the war plant or to the local headquarters of the WMC. A large

<sup>2</sup> The various central wage-administration agencies of those branches of the government with jurisdiction over war plants arrive independently at their wage scales.

<sup>3</sup> This discussion is limited to direct factors in increasing the labor force. Indirect factors include wages, hours, housing, etc., in fact, all the matters considered subsequently in this article.

number of men have in this way been exchanged between these public and private enterprises.

**A**NOTHER MEANS taken to alleviate the labor shortage was a very successful "minute man" campaign. Hundreds of letters of inquiry were mailed to farmers and businessmen in the surrounding community to determine the number who could work at this installation during "blitzes," i. e., special rush operations occasioned by maneuvers on the battlefronts. The response to this experiment was decidedly gratifying. These "blitzmen" have performed invaluable services in assisting this station to fulfill its mission.

Women are also being used in every possible capacity to swell the labor supply. More than a year ago women (including former school teachers and a fortune-teller from New York City!) were hired as assemblers in the crate shop and have been the mainstay of the carpentry section ever since. As many as twenty of the guard force are women. They receive training identical with that of the men, but are never detailed to duties that might involve the use of weapons. Women have operated the largest munitions trucks, which have a capacity of from six to ten tons. Girls wash vehicles, check tires, and have been employed on rail-maintenance work. It is estimated that fully forty per cent of the present labor force at this plant are women.

Finding, nevertheless, that recruitment of civilian labor proved insufficient to meet the demands for manpower, the personnel department arranged early in January of this year to make up the deficiency by using technical troops. However, the recent job controls, promulgated at the end of May by the War Manpower Commission, may relieve the manpower situation by facilitating the transfer of labor from less critical areas to this defense plant.

#### MANPOWER UTILIZATION

**I**N COMBATING a "tight" labor market, maximum utilization of the existing labor force is as important as recruitment.<sup>4</sup> This installation, like most similar plants, still has not

reached the goal of full utilization of its personnel. Faulty organization, the natural concomitant of swift expansion, has produced a tendency to overman departments. Employees have been added to the permanent rolls to meet emergency operations, but, of course, in times of average activity these employees are superfluous in their original assignments. Furthermore, in certain cases where new work has been assigned to sections, department heads have often neglected to estimate their needs carefully in advance, and have asked for more employees than the number actually needed. In the rush, requisitions for employees have usually been filled by hiring new workers rather than by transferring surplus personnel from other sections. Lack of sound organization is responsible for other practices which have impaired efficiency, i. e., constant shifting of duties without regard for classification of positions, and refusal of top-line administrators to delegate duties and responsibilities.

Manpower has also been used too lavishly because of inadequate analysis of procedures. By unnecessary waiting for equipment and instructions and by failure to use the shortest methods possible, precious man-hours have been lost to the war effort. Another factor that has prevented the most effective use of labor is the dearth of trained supervisors. To achieve that teamwork necessary for smooth and efficient performance of each section, the officer-in-charge must know how to handle men. Likewise, he must be familiar with techniques of management analysis so that he may plan and adjust the organization of his unit for an economical flow of work, timed to fit into the schedules of the related units.

Finally, alarming rates of turnover and of absenteeism have plagued the production departments. High turnover spells lower production levels by increasing the time spent in "breaking in" new employees and results in an unwieldy proportion of inexperienced personnel. At this particular plant, lack of recreational and nursery facilities raised turnover rates last January to approximately 15 per cent. Nor has this plant escaped the national epidemic of absenteeism rampant since the war's beginning. Damage done by absenteeism needs no explanation.

<sup>4</sup> According to a special study made by the Industrial Relations Section of Princeton University, proper measures can increase tremendously the productive man-hours of those workers already in war industries.

RECOGNIZING the comprehensive problem of attaining fuller utilization of manpower, the personnel department of this plant, in cooperation with other departments, is instituting remedial measures. First, organizational structure has been improved by correcting overstaffing. The size of crews in the operating areas has now been reduced, a change which has resulted in greater output than was previously achieved with larger crews. A recent regulation requires approval by the classification technician of requisitions for employees, in order to verify the need for additional workers. Moreover, a file of subordinate skills of all employees has just been completed as a preliminary step in establishing a policy of filling vacancies by intra-plant transfers wherever possible. To effect further improvements in departmental organization all section chiefs are now urged to consult the classification technician on matters of consolidating positions and delegating duties and responsibilities.

Starting from another approach a control staff has made detailed analyses of operational processes resulting in a gratifying elimination of "bottle necks." This department of management experts is prepared to give to any unit assistance regarding questions of production and office procedures. At the same time, the need for trained supervisors is being answered by special instruction of those in managerial positions, with emphasis on solution of employer-employee problems, and on the science of organization and work-planning.

Finally, the problems of labor turnover and absenteeism have been vigorously attacked at this plant. The consequent reduction in turnover rate has been due in part to an intensified recreational program and provision for the care of small children during their mothers' working hours. Undoubtedly another factor has been the designation of the region in which this plant is located as a "critical area" by the War Manpower Commission under the national employment stabilization program. Thus a release from the plant is necessary for voluntary termination; if no adequate replacement is available, the release is refused. However, "back-to-the-farm" resignations are automatically accepted, agriculture being a critical war industry.

Measures specifically designed to eliminate unexcused absence were undertaken. Several months ago, the personnel department, after compiling statistics on leave, analyzed the causes for absence without permission. It was found that many employees were ignorant of the rules regarding application for leave. Workers were informed that they had earned leave and, without notice to supervisors or the personnel department, merely remained at home for a few days. Now, weekly attendance reports must be submitted by each department to the Assistant Personnel Director. This officer, in turn, interviews all individuals who have been "AWOL" on any day during the preceding week. In addition, an "AWOL" mars the employee's service record. No promotion is awarded to a candidate with any unexcused leave, and excessive "AWOL's" are dealt with by separation from the force. At present there are but two or three "AWOL's" per day compared to as many as forty, eight months ago.

Many of the means to maximize productive man-hours of available personnel discussed above have been but recently instituted at this installation. Only continuous and conscientious application of these principles will yield dividends.

#### WAGES AND HOURS

UPWARD PRESSURE on wages in war industries is a nationwide phenomenon. At this particular defense plant men and women between the ages of 18 and 65, and without high skills, can earn from \$1750 to \$2600 per year. Higher salaries are, of course, paid to the holders of the more important positions. For many employees, time and one-half is paid for all work after forty hours. Since the plant is operated by the government, appointments are made within the framework of the emergency civil service regulations, and terms of employment, including pay, are established under those regulations.

Classification of positions at this government-operated plant, as at all others, is entrusted to a wage administration analyst. Rates of pay of the so-called "graded" positions (i. e., administrative, professional, clerical and custodial) have been the subject of legislation by Congress, beginning with the Classification

**Act of 1923.** Analysts classify graded positions by allocating them to established classes on the basis of the percentage of time spent on each of various duties and the responsibility attaching to each position. Salary ranges of individuals in graded positions are automatically determined by the classes to which the positions are assigned.

The chief problems concerning pay center around the rate schedules for "ungraded" positions, i. e., skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled. These schedules are determined by a special committee on wages (composed of the personnel director of the plant, heads of the operating sections, and representatives of the United States Civil Service Commission) in accordance with prevailing rates in the community.<sup>5</sup> In order to place wages of ungraded positions at this plant on a basis comparable with those of local industry and thus eliminate competition from that source, a special wage board was set up soon after operations began (in December, 1942). Wages of certain types of skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled jobs in private concerns within a radius of forty miles were surveyed. Then an internal job-alignment plan was drawn up and submitted to the central wage authorities in Washington; and moderate increases in certain wages were approved. Nevertheless, recruitment of personnel has been and still is seriously hindered by competition from other plants in the region, both public and private, which pay higher wages than this facility is authorized to offer.

Recommendations for advances in salaries occasioned by increased duties and responsibilities of either graded or ungraded positions are channeled through the classification technician. Furthermore, all practices in wage administration and position classification are periodically examined by regional survey teams which attempt to secure comparability of standards among the governmental installations.

The standard work-week is eight hours per day, six days a week. For a period of four months last winter the ten-hour day was inaugurated in the operating areas to meet the requirements of increased activity. Part of this time operating personnel worked seven days a week. One Sunday, however, a group of volun-

<sup>5</sup> This procedure is followed in all government-operated war plants.

tee office workers, most of whom had done little manual labor, was organized into a relief crew to substitute for the operatives.

Regulations governing leave at this plant permit no more than six consecutive days vacation with pay, although under civil service rules a total of twenty-six days of paid vacation for a year of service are credited to each employee. Occasional leave is granted for the conduct of personal business. In accord with the usual federal practice employees are allowed fifteen days of sick leave annually. Most holidays are not observed.

#### TRAINING AND SAFETY MEASURES

**W**HENEVER CHANGES in the economy require sudden expansion of a country's productive activities, the problem of inexperienced personnel is bound to arise. In an attempt noted earlier to compensate for the lack of veteran supervisors an intensive training program has been instituted. Training specialists from Washington, called in to survey the relevant needs of this plant, set up the initial program. A small group of key civilian administrators was given instruction in supervision by this survey team. Subjects discussed included the handling of grievances, co-operation, safety, organization of work, and many others, all focused on the techniques of dealing with workers and their problems in order to improve production. One of this nucleus of trainees was designated as training director for the program, and a series of conferences was scheduled for all those serving in a supervisory capacity throughout the plant. The conferences, presided over by "graduates" of the first training class, follow the above curriculum.<sup>6</sup> As in most war plants, special attention has been directed to "on-the-job" training. A course in truck-driving and repairs has been organized for women, the regular drivers acting as instructors. A class of forty-five young women has received training in stenography and correspondence. Other courses include checking, plant protection, and fire-fighting. As needs for instruction arise, classes are organized by the personnel department.

Some types of specialized training are provided elsewhere than in the plant. Personnel

<sup>6</sup> Similar to Job Relations Training program of the Training Within Industry Service of the War Manpower Commission.

have been detailed at government expense to other stations for courses in traffic management, vehicle maintenance, inspection of ammunition, management, and position classification. Without its training program this plant could not maintain its production schedules. But efforts cannot be relaxed, especially in relation to basic supervisory training.

To insure high standards of health and morale among the workers and the attainment of production goals, an energetic program for accident prevention was early instituted at the plant. Foremost in this program is a system of inspection in which an experienced safety engineer makes daily spot checks of operations to ascertain compliance with safety regulations. As part of a program of education for safety each member of the operating crews is detailed to act as safety inspector for two weeks, during which time he is to report any hazardous conditions that come to his knowledge. Protective clothing must be worn in the more dangerous jobs, and guards are placed on most machinery. The safety department gives special instruction to new employees, and a safety manual containing rules for each type of job is now issued to all employees. Posters and bulletins urge caution at all times. Every injury must be reported and the cause must be analyzed. Compensation is provided for injuries incurred during the employee's tour of duty. The excellent safety record of this station attests the success of the measures employed in accident prevention.

Employee grievances at the plant were not handled in any systematic fashion until this year, when formal machinery was established. Grievances are now channeled through section heads to a newly appointed personnel office employee counselor. Thus a major source of friction in the plant is being reduced, thereby boosting morale, and, in turn, production.

#### HOUSING AND SPECIAL SERVICES

THAT AN ACUTE housing shortage has existed at most war plants is undeniable. During the construction of this particular plant lodgings were pitifully inadequate, but since that time three building projects, costing in the aggregate more than two million dollars, have been completed under the direction of the Federal Public Housing Authority. Two are located in the nearest town, about twelve miles

away, and one is adjacent to the reservation. In this last development rentals begin at \$29 for bachelor apartments of two rooms and rise to \$35.50 for three-bedroom units. These charges include cost of utilities and an electric icebox. The other projects feature individual houses with rents beginning at \$48.50, not including utilities. In addition to these accommodations, dormitories have been built on the reservation. These dormitories, or "barracks," offer single rooms at \$15 per month and double rooms at \$10 for each occupant. The housing facilities are now adequate for all employees who care to live in the vicinity of the station.

As part of a program for attracting and keeping workers, the most complete and modern medical facilities have been provided for employees and their families. A 54-bed hospital has been established, which includes two operating-rooms, an X-ray laboratory, dental clinic, ear, eye, nose and throat clinic, and a dispensary. Two physicians, one part-time dentist, and five trained nurses are in attendance. Every recruit is given a pre-employment examination, and employees are urged, in the interest of reducing absences, to seek medical treatment to prevent serious illnesses. In case of injury incurred during performance of duty, medical care is free. For all other services, such as hospitalization for surgery, house visits, maternity care, and dental work, very reasonable charges are made.

Workers must have recreation, and no isolated plant can hope to boast of high morale and steady labor without adequate provision for engaging employees' interests during "after hours." For more than a year a Civilian Recreational Club, sponsored by the personnel department, has arranged dances, sports teams, and feature events, such as an out-door carnival. Becoming aware of the startling turnover rates, plant executives have been instrumental in broadening the recreational program to include motion pictures, classes in ballroom and folk dancing, and lessons in handicrafts. A surprisingly well stocked library, equipment for games such as ping-pong and volleyball, and a radio and piano are available in a recreation hall on the reservation. In winter months ice skating can be enjoyed on a natural pond behind the "barracks." With increasing numbers of employees coming from distant com-

munities, recreational facilities are playing a decisive part in maintaining the required numbers on the rolls.

#### SUMMARY

PUBLIC PERSONNEL PRACTICES in all jurisdictions have been altered in adaptation to wartime conditions. Although in some local jurisdictions personnel management has been relatively little affected by the war, in most jurisdictions important changes in the rules, standards, and methods of personnel administration have been made. Formal requirements which stood in the way of public necessity had to be dropped, but this did not mean the abandonment of all formal requirements. Standards had to be adjusted to the conditions as they were found, but with caution and consideration for means of compensating for lowered standards. The conditions of personnel administration in wartime have shifted emphasis from selection to recruitment, training, attendance, and the avoidance of turnover, with personnel officers using every resource at their command to man adequately the necessary public jobs. The methods used in the emergency have rarely been wholly new, but have rather been intensifications and outgrowths of practices that are already known.

The foregoing case study of personnel practices at a government war plant represents a situation in which the necessities have been extremely urgent, while the normal personnel and community resources for such a plant were

previously nonexistent. Most public personnel directors will not have occasion to negotiate for the transfer of workers from a cannery, for example, or to teach carpentry and truck driving to women, but even those who have not had such direct experiences should hesitate hereafter before claiming that employees cannot be found for vacancies or proposed jobs. Difficult problems of classification, overstaffing, or prevailing wages are not unique to emergency public facilities, but personnel technicians who have battled out such issues in the war agencies will bring to postwar personnel administration sharpened skills of analysis for these personnel problems. The near miracles which training can accomplish in bringing substandard recruits up to par should forever overcome the resistance to training under more normal circumstances, even though the necessities seem less urgent. Wartime public employment problems in Washington, as well as in isolated public facilities, have illustrated the importance of housing, health services, and community and recreational activities for employees. Traditionally, these have been the responsibility of the employee and the community, but the experience during the war suggests at least some lines of possible future consideration for personnel officers. Regardless of the value of wartime personnel accomplishments for postwar personnel administration, the record of how the job was done is a significant chapter in the history of public personnel administration.

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# COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

**Political Activity Under Hatch Act—Constitutionality.** Ever since enactment of the Hatch Act (Act of August 2, 1939; U. S. C., Title 18, Section 61 h (a); 53 Stat. 1147, 1148; 54 Stat. 767; 56 Stat. 181) differences of opinion have existed and doubts have been raised in many quarters, particularly among public employee organizations and advocates of civil liberties, as to the constitutionality of this law. Particularly under attack was Section 9 (a) which provides that:

It shall be unlawful for any person employed in the executive branch of the federal government, or any agency or department thereof, to use his official authority or influence for the purpose of interfering with an election or affecting the result thereof. No officer or employee in the executive branch of the federal government, or any agency or department thereof, except a part-time officer or part-time employee without compensation or with nominal compensation serving in connection with the existing war effort, other than in any capacity relating to the procurement or manufacture of war material shall take any active part in political management or in political campaigns. All such persons shall retain the right to vote as they may choose and to express their opinions on all political subjects and candidates. For the purposes of this section the term 'officer' or 'employee' shall not be construed to include (1) the President and Vice President of the United States; (2) persons whose compensation is paid from the appropriation for the office of the President; (3) heads and assistant heads of executive departments; (4) officers who are appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and who determine policies to be pursued by the United States in its relations with foreign powers or in the nation-wide administration of federal laws.

Violation of this provision is punishable by dismissal from the service. The federal civil service rules were modified slightly to conform with the Hatch Act. Rule I now provides:

No person in the executive civil service shall use his official authority or influence for the purpose of interfering with an election or affecting the results thereof. Persons who by the provisions of these rules are in the competitive classified service, while retaining the right to vote as they please and to express their opinions on all political subjects, shall take no active part in political management or in political campaigns.

The United Federal Workers of America (C. I. O.) brought a proceeding on behalf of itself and twelve individual plaintiffs, members of its

organization, against the Civil Service Commission in the United States District Court for the District of Columbia. In challenging the constitutionality of the Hatch Act, the union asserted that it brought the proceeding to "protect and restore the rights of its membership," in that the enforcement of the act will cause the dismissal of some of its members who admittedly have violated its provisions, and that some of the employees affected had already been brought up on charges for dismissal. The constitutionality of the political activity prohibition of the Hatch Act was attacked on the following grounds: (1) that it violated the fundamental rights of employees guaranteed by the First Amendment to the Constitution, which provides that "Congress shall make no law abridging . . . freedom of speech, or of the press, or of the right of the people peaceably to assemble;" (2) that it deprives employees of liberty and property without due process of law in violation of the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution; and (3) that it disparages and denies to the plaintiffs the fundamental right to engage in political activity reserved to the people by the Ninth and Tenth Amendments.

The Court in an opinion filed August 3, 1944, upheld the constitutionality of the Hatch Act. The opinion states in part:

In the debates leading up to the passage of the Hatch Act much was said about the limitation on the constitutional rights of those employees who were made subject to the Act. Most that was said was by those who considered the legislation to be an infringement of such rights. There can, therefore, be no doubt that it was the considered judgment of the Congress and of the President that the legislation was not such an infringement.

To say that the Congress has not the power to pass this legislation in the public interest, and in the interest of the employees of the government whose tenure it is seeking to protect, is to say that it is not rational for the Congress to conclude that it cannot take political activity out of the employment, promotion and dismissal of government employees without at the same time taking government employees out of political activity. This is a question for the Congress, and not the courts, to decide.

The plaintiffs challenge the legislation as being unreasonably discriminatory between the employees who come within the Act and certain employees excepted therefrom. First, the employees covered by the Act as compared with persons whose compensation is paid from appropriation for the office of the President, heads and assistant heads of Executive Departments, officers who are appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and who

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determine policies to be pursued by the United States in its relation with foreign powers, or in the nation-wide administration of federal laws. It is perfectly obvious that these classes of employees are in very large measure political. No one supposes that they would not change with the changing of administrations. There is no need nor desire to protect them from political activity, and hence there is no corresponding occasion to restrict such activity on their part.

An amendment to the Act, which has application to certain state employees where the funds supporting the activity or institution with which they are connected are supplied in whole or in part by the federal government, exempts "any officer or employee of any educational or research institution, establishment, agency, or system which is supported in whole or in part by any state or political subdivision thereof, or by the District of Columbia or any Territory or Territorial possession of the United States; or by any recognized religious, philanthropic, or cultural organization." It is clear that this exemption deals primarily with teachers, though no doubt other types of work come within such exempting provisions. To deny to Congress the power to make this classification is to say that Congress may not rationally conclude that, while it should lay restrictions upon the political activity of government employees generally, it should not do so where the duties of their work are such as to require acts which come within the general interdiction. Certainly the classification is not unreasonable viewed in the light of the objectives of the legislation.

A further exemption by amendment relates to the participation of federal employees residing in municipalities or other political subdivisions adjacent to the District of Columbia insofar as local campaigns and elections are concerned. The reasonableness of these classifications seem too obvious to require discussion to show that there is no arbitrary discrimination such as would invalidate the legislation.

All in all, we can see no sound reason for a conclusion that the second sentence of Section 9 (a) of the Hatch Act is repugnant to the Constitution.

**Appointment—Right to Deny—Refusal to Salute Flag.** It was perhaps inevitable that a Jehovah's Witness problem would ultimately arise in connection with the administration of civil service laws. Such was the situation in *Morgan v. Civil Service Commission*, 36 Atl. (2d) 898 (N.J.), where the New Jersey Supreme Court, impressed by the recent decision of the United States Supreme Court on flag salute problems, ruled that a qualified veteran could not be denied an appointment on the sole ground that his religious scruples prevented him from saluting the nation's flag. As pointed out in the concurring opinion of Justice Parker, the real basis for the decision is that the state legislature, through its civil service laws, "has not ordained that the right to hold a public office or position may be conditioned upon observance of a compulsory flag-salute ritual."

However, the court went further and urged that even if the Legislature attempted such a restriction, state and federal constitutional provisions would be violated. The court stated its reasons thus:

Our Bill of Rights safeguards the individual's right to speak his own mind, uninfluenced by civil or political disabilities. The . . . guarantees of personal liberty plainly forbid disqualification from the public service for one's

religious or political opinions. . . . These treasured civil and religious liberties yield only to grave public exigencies. . . . Since the federal authority [Supreme Court] does not consider the flag salute to be a matter of initial public concern, transcending these fundamental civil and religious freedoms, the states would hardly be justified in considering it as having that attribute.

**Veterans' Preference—Scope of Statute—Draftees.** A problem often arising under veterans' preference statutes involves the determination of who is a veteran within the meaning of the statute. In the light of the current war situation, it is interesting to note that the Iowa Supreme Court has ruled that soldiers who were drafted during the first World War were members of the "regular or volunteer army . . . of the United States," within the meaning of the state preference law. (*Case v. Olson*, 14 N.W. [2d] 717 [Iowa].) The court rejected a narrow construction which would have included only volunteers. Referring to the rule that language in a statute is to be given the meaning ordinarily ascribed to it at the time the law was passed, the court held that even the definition of the words "volunteer army" in use by the War Department at the time included "persons who are conscripted directly by the United States and forced to serve." The court also placed great stress on the basic purpose of the law, stating:

To say that the law embraces only regular soldiers . . . would result in an absurdity in no way contemplated by the act itself. All military organizations were parts of the Army of the United States. To strictly construe the statute so as to eliminate the largest part of an army from the benefits secured to soldiers by the statute would contravene the very purpose of the law and could not have been within the intent of the legislature. . . . That intent was to give to those making application for positions . . . some recognition of the service they had rendered by granting to them, if they had the prescribed qualifications, an advantage in selection. It is not to be conceived that the legislature . . . intended to confine that privilege to only a fractional part of the armed forces. . . .

(*Editor's Note*. Some of the state courts have gone so far as to hold that any person who had been inducted into service, whether actually serving a day or not, so long as he was "sworn in," was a "veteran" of a war entitled to preference privileges.)

**Veterans Preference—Five Day Week—Right to Extra Work.** A perplexing practical application of a state veterans preference statute was involved in *State ex rel. Maki v. Village of Hibbing*, 14 N.W. (2d) 343 (Minn.), where a veteran, operating a sprinkler for the city on a five-day-week basis, urged that his preference entitled him to work a full seven-day-week, inasmuch as the sprinkler was operated every day in the week, with other veterans permitted to operate during the other two days while plaintiff did not work. (This plan was adopted by the city to spread employment.)

The court ingeniously contended that two positions were actually involved, with respect to the same sprinkler—a "five-day-week position," and a "two-day-week position." The court's reasoning was:

There is no question about the council's right to operate on a five-day-week basis, and there is nothing in the Veterans Preference Act, or any other statute, which forbids such a policy. The question we are concerned with is relator's preferential rights to the two-day-week position. . . . An examination of the Veterans Preference Act discloses that there is nothing requiring the council here to give relator preference for the two-day-week position over other ex-servicemen who might be applicants therefor. . . . It is optional with the council as to which of such applicants having a preference shall be so employed, assuming they have the other qualifications specified in the act.

(*Editor's Note.* The court held that the veteran was entitled to share the "two-day-week" position with other veterans. But if there are two positions, as the court holds, it seems rather surprising that a veteran already holding one position should be entitled, along with other veterans, to get another position. The answer must lie in the peculiar facts of the case. The other veterans were also regular city employees, though in other jobs, and the conflict was one between groups of "five-day-week" employees for the right to work the extra two days.)

**Scope of Civil Service Laws—Welfare Employees—Illinois Rule.** Following the precedent set by the New York Court of Appeals in *Kraus v. Singstad*, 275 N. Y. 302, 9 N. E. (2d) 938, the Appellate Court of Illinois has ruled that employees and assistants of the Chicago Commissioner of Relief are subject to the civil service law of the jurisdiction, and should be classified thereunder. (*People ex rel. De Boer v. Geary*, 54 N. E. [2d] 840 [Ill.].) A provision of the state statute governing relief administration requires the city council to "provide by ordinance for the appointment of an overseer of the poor . . . and for such other employees and assistants as may be necessary to properly relieve and support the poor and indigent. . . ." It was argued that the word "provide" includes power to control the method and manner of appointment of subordinates so that the statute, in effect, permitted city councils to appoint relief employees without regard to the existing civil service law. In short, a *pro tanto* repeal of the civil service law was urged, but the court held that "repeals by implication are not favored. . . . It is only when there is such a clear repugnancy between an earlier and a later statute that the latter cannot be carried into effect that the former is repealed or amended." The court indicated that the relief statute merely supplied omissions in the civil service statute with respect

to number of employees, hours, and compensation, so that the two laws complemented, rather than contradicted each other.

The opinion rejected the contention that trained social workers cannot be adequately selected on the basis of merit and fitness. Commenting on this claim the court stated:

There is nothing in the qualification of these workers and the nature of the work done by them which would make selection by fitness, ascertained by competitive examination, undesirable or impracticable. . . . Social workers performing similar services in New York are under civil service. . . . The question of the application of the civil service laws to persons on work relief is not involved. The employees and assistants engaged in administration of relief in Chicago . . . are not needy and indigent persons. . . . Their salaries are not determined on a relief basis.

**"Covering-In" Incumbents—Statutory Requirements—Failure to Comply.** Where, with respect to a new civil service system created by charter revision, employees do not come within the express city charter provisions providing for the "covering-in" of incumbents, it is improper for a civil service commission to retain such employees in preference to new employees who take the required examination and received higher grades than the incumbents. (*Lawlor v. City of Dearborn*, 14 N. W. [2d] 822 [Mich.].) The new Dearborn, Michigan, charter provides that incumbents may be retained without further examination if they "have been properly certified by any civil service commission existing at the time of the adoption of this charter. . . ." Petitioners had been regular members of the classified service under the old civil service system, but they were not certified for appointment under the new system by either the old or new commission, except by way of certification for temporary appointment pending examination, which certification was made by the new commission. Consequently, the petitioners were not "covered-in" by the charter, and after examination it became the duty of the new commission to certify those highest on the list. It was a violation of that duty for the new commission to change its mind about petitioners, and to certify them for permanent appointment in preference to those who placed higher in the examination.

(*Editor's Note.* It should be noted that the charter amendment did not expressly "cover-in" all incumbents then serving. It merely covered those employees who had theretofore been appointed under a civil service statute or charter provision.)

**Salaries—Increase by Ordinance—Right to Recover in Absence of Appropriation.** Where a city ordinance validly provided for salary increases

for civil service employees, to take effect at the beginning of the succeeding year, "it then became the duty of the mayor to provide in the budget for payment of the salaries as increased by the ordinance. . . . Since the salaries were validly increased, the [employees] are entitled to recover the unpaid balances of the increased salaries, and the fact that the city has failed to make the necessary appropriation therefor constitutes no defense." (*Rock v. City of Pittsfield*, 55 N. E. [2d] 606 [Mass.].)

**Salaries—Comparison with Private Industry—Construction of Statute Requiring Increase.** A somewhat liberal interpretation of a city charter provision compelling payment to civil service employees of wages equal to prevailing levels for similar private employment may be found in *Allen v. Bourtron*, 148 P. (2d) 673 (Cal.). Despite the fact that complaining employees (building inspectors) urged that, in violation of the charter provision, they were being paid by the City of Los Angeles from \$125 to \$175 less than the readily ascertainable wage level for similar work in private industry, the court denied relief. The court's interpretation is as follows:

Plaintiffs are seeking to control the exercise of the discretion which is reposed in the members of the city council. . . . The fixing of the salaries of the many employees of a large city, especially in a period of great emergency when conditions are subject to frequent change, undoubtedly calls for the exercise of a wise discretion. . . . The city council . . . doubtless took into consideration the fact that plaintiffs are city employees under civil service with permanent employment, entitled to vacations with pay, sick leave and the benefit of the retirement system; that the employment of those claimed to be doing work similar to that of plaintiffs is not only temporary during war times but is subject to fluctuation as to the amount of compensation; and that the work of a building inspector in private employment is unlike that of plaintiffs, who, being public employees, are mainly called upon to see that the building codes are enforced.

**Promotion—Increase in Salary—Revocable Assignment to Special Duties.** The troublesome question of whether an increase in salary, together with an authorized assignment to special duties, constitutes a promotion in rank or grade in violation of civil service provisions was considered in *Stohl v. Horstmann*, 148 P. (2d) 697 (Cal.). The Oakland city charter prohibits the creation in the police department of any rank or grade other than those specified therein. The petitioner, a policeman, was assigned to special duty in charge of the city jail, and sought to compel the city auditor to increase his salary by \$25 per month pursuant to a city ordinance providing for such increase to the "member of the police department assigned to duty in charge of the city jail. . . ." The auditor declined to do so on the ground that the assign-

ment to special duty, plus the salary increase, constituted a "promotion" to a new rank in violation of the charter. The court disagreed, holding:

It appears settled that where a city council is empowered to fix salaries, reasonable variations in the salaries fixed for persons holding the same rank will be upheld. . . . It has also been clearly indicated that a mere revocable assignment to special duties in a position designated by a special title and carrying added compensation does not necessarily constitute a promotion to another rank or grade. . . . We do not wish to be understood as holding that the city council has or had unlimited power to provide for additional compensation for those assigned to special duties. . . . It is not difficult to conceive of situations in which the nature of the special duties and the amount provided by way of increased compensation would be such as to compel the conclusion that a new rank or grade had been created. . . . But while a certain degree of inflexibility is necessary in all civil service laws, it is not the function of the courts to construe uncertainties in such laws so as to prevent any degree of flexibility and thereby "to put governmental executives in a strait jacket."

The court referred to the New York rule holding increased compensation beyond the limit of a grade to constitute a promotion (*People v. Tully*, 108 A. D. 345, 95 N. Y. S. 916, 919), but pointed out that the case before it was distinguishable, since the city charter fixed minimum rather than maximum compensation for grades, so that the increase was not beyond the limit fixed for a grade. The court was not impressed by the contention that the minimum for the next higher grade constituted the maximum for the lower grade.

**Probationary Firemen—Assignment at Lower Salary Prohibited.** The New York City Charter provides for four grades of firemen with entrance salary of \$2,000. The Board of Estimate authorized the fire commissioner to appoint "probationary firemen" to be paid at the rate of \$1,200 per year during the first six months of service, which constitutes the probationary period under the civil service rules. The court held that the Board of Estimate lacked authority in the matter, and that the minimum salary of \$2,000 provided in the charter was controlling. (*Allen v. New York City*, 54 N. E. [2d] 88, N. Y.)

**Eligible Lists—Duration—Computation of Time.** The New York Supreme Court recently considered the novel question of computation of time for measuring the life of an eligible list. The court pointed out that although Section 14 of the Civil Service Law provides for a maximum life of four years for eligible lists, no mention is made as to the date from which the term of eligibility shall run. The court referred to a rule of the New York City Civil Service Commission to the effect that eligible lists "shall be officially promulgated only by resolution of the Commission. . . . The date of such resolution shall be the date of the

promulgation of such list." The court then held that the life of a list is measured from the date of official promulgation, and in computing the four year period the court, in the absence of judicial precedent or specific provision in the Civil Service Law, applied Section 20 of the General Construction Law, which reads: "In computing any specified period of time from a specified event, the day upon which the event happens is deemed the day from which the reckoning is made. The day from which any specified period of time is reckoned shall be excluded in making the reckoning." Thus, the court excluded June 28, 1939, the day the list was promulgated, and included June 28, 1943 as the limit of the four year period of eligibility. (*Broderick v. City of New York*, 47 N. Y. S. [2d] 714 [Sp. Term].)

The court also ruled that the power of the City Board of Estimate to create, abolish, or modify positions and grades of city employees could not be delegated, under the provisions of the New York City Charter, to the Budget Director; and, further, that the Board's power could only be exercised at the time of adoption of the budget. Consequently, the court invalidated ten promotions resulting from improper exercise of the Board's power, and nullified the promotions of the petitioners in the case, which promotions, the court held, could not be made after the eligible lists had expired.

**Probationary Employees—Removal—Summary Action.** The familiar rule that probationary employees may be summarily dismissed where their work is unsatisfactory was reaffirmed in *Lingrell v. New Jersey Civil Service Commission*, 37 Atl. (2d) 278 (N. J.). The statute provides for a working test period, during which the appointing authority is required to report to the civil service commission whether, in his opinion, the test provided by observance of the employee's work shows the employee able and willing to perform his duties in a satisfactory manner. "This indicates that the sole test is an opinion formed by observation of the employee's work," stated the court. "It goes without saying that such opinion must be, as in this case, formed in good faith."

(*Editor's Note.*) Some other state courts have refused to consider the issue of motives in dropping a probationer as not within the judicial province. See, for example, *Morasco v. Morse*, 46 N. E. 364 [N. Y.], and *Artman v. McDonough*, 4 N. E. [2d] 983 [Ohio].)

**Hours of Work—Administrative Discretion—Emergency Resulting from Wartime Conditions.** An interesting illustration of statutory interpreta-

tion in the light of wartime conditions may be found in *Kane v. Walsh*, 48 N. Y. S. (2d) 370 (Tr. Term). A section of the New York City administrative code (passed by a two-thirds vote of the state legislature, and a majority vote of New York City electors) fixes a maximum eight hour day for city firemen except "in the event of conflagrations, riots or other similar emergencies," in which case firemen may be continued on duty for "such hours as may be necessary." The court upheld the contention of the fire commissioner that general wartime conditions, resulting in loss of personnel and increased fire hazards, is a "similar emergency" within the meaning of the code provision. The court therefore sustained the action of the commissioner in ordering increased hours of duty. The Appellate Division recently affirmed the lower court's decision, without opinion.

The case furnishes another example of the willingness of the courts to reject the *ejusdem generis* doctrine in statutory interpretation where broad considerations so dictate. The argument of the firemen that a general wartime condition is not an emergency "similar" to conflagrations and riots, and, consequently, not covered by the statute, is a potent argument; the type of argument frequently accepted by the courts in their tendency to embrace the *ejusdem generis* rule. But the rule is not an unyielding one, and where the result of its application is undesirable, the courts argue that the rule "must be controlled by another equally general rule, that statutes ought, like wills or other documents, to be construed so as to carry out the objects sought to be accomplished by them. . . . Its proper office is to give effect to the true intention of [the legislature], not to defeat it."

**Leave of Absence—Statutory Provisions—Constitutionality.** A state statute compelling cities which maintain regularly organized paid fire departments to grant to regular members thereof a specified minimum leave of absence each year was upheld as constitutional in *Styring v. City of Santa Ana*, 147 P. (2d) 689 (Cal.). The statute does not violate the constitutional provision prohibiting special laws affecting the salaries of officers, since the court deemed the statute not a salary statute. "None of its provisions even approach that question," stated the court. The traditional argument that the law contravened the constitutional provision forbidding special legislation (i. e., legislation conferring rights on a privileged few) was met by the court with an equally traditional principle that

a law is general and not special where it affects one class of citizens and there is an intrinsic, natural and reasonable

ground for a distinction between those falling within that class and others outside of it. . . . Here the reason for the classification is found in the nature of the services performed by said members of organized fire departments. It differs from the work of those engaged in other employments and is an intrinsic, natural and reasonable ground for classification.

**Employee Relations—Union as "Exclusive Bargaining Agent"—Check-Off and Closed Shop Agreement Invalid.** An interesting opinion holding unlawful an alleged contract made between the City of Baltimore and a labor union was written by the Circuit Court of Baltimore in *Mugford v. Mayor and City Council of Baltimore* on April 13, 1944. The court held invalid an agreement made between the Baltimore City Department of Public Works and a labor union which sought to provide for recognition of the union as "sole and exclusive bargaining agent," and for arbitration of disputes, a check-off system, and a closed shop.

**Removal—Public Criticism of Superiors—Privileged Testimony at Investigation of Commission.** One of the aftermaths of the highly publicized city council investigation of the New York City Civil Service Commission may be found in *Berg v. Marsh*, 48 N. Y. S. (2d) 285 (App. Div.), where the court ordered the reinstatement of a civil service employee who had been removed by the Commission on the theory that he wilfully made false public statements impugning the integrity of the Commission to the prejudice of the public service. The alleged false statements were made while testifying, pursuant to subpoena, before the investigating committee; and the gist of the testimony was that the witness had not left examination papers unguarded, as previously charged by the Commission, with an inference that the charge of the Commission had been a deliberate attempt to compromise the witness.

The court reviewed the testimony before the investigating committee, together with prior statements of the witness when the Commission had originally charged him with leaving papers unguarded, and concluded that the witness did not falsely testify before the committee. The court pointed out that the

charter of the City of New York . . . gives the council powers of investigation. In pursuance of these powers, a councilmanic committee is privileged in its discretion to subpoena and question under oath civil service employees. Testimony elicited under these circumstances cannot be called public criticism of the Municipal Civil Service Commissioners and punished as such. If such statements are not deemed privileged, it is obvious that the councilmanic committee could be thwarted in its investigations by the constant fear of punishment which would hang over civil service employees if they happen to testify to a fact or an opinion which displeases those superiors whose conduct of their office is or may be the object of the investigation.

**Outside Employment—Administrative Authority to Forbid.** One of the aspects of the problem of public employees accepting outside employment involves the authority of administrative officers to forbid such action. In *State ex rel Jakobson v. Seamer*, 14 N. W. (2d) 113 (Minn.), the court ruled that the commissioner of public safety of the city of St. Paul had no authority to promulgate a rule forbidding outside employment. To discharge an employee for violation of such rule was therefore improper. The city charter requires general management of the commissioner's department to be provided by city ordinance. It also provides that all "administrative details" shall remain in the hands of the commissioner, "so that he may secure the best results from his subordinates." The court held that a prohibition against accepting outside employment was more than an "administrative detail," so that a city ordinance was required to authorize such prohibition.

(*Editor's Note.*) In a recent case [*Calfapietra v. Walsh*, July 26, 1944] a New York Supreme Court held that such a prohibitory rule was within the discretion of the fire commissioner as inherently necessary to carry out the peculiar functions and responsibilities of that department. The court found no charter prohibition to preclude such a reasonable exercise of authority, distinguishing the case from other departments where outside employment might not be so detrimental to the administration of the agency. In the latter case the department has no authority to make such rule without express statute. See *Natilson v. Hodson*, 289 N. Y. 802.)

**Demotions—Hearings—Transcript of Testimony.** In *Civil Service Commission of Van Buren v. Mattock*, 178 S. W. (2d) 662 (Ark.), it was held that a verbatim record of testimony taken before the civil service commission in connection with the demotion of a chief of police to patrolman was not essential, and that a filing with the lower courts of a certified transcript containing the substance of the testimony before the commission was sufficient.

**Abolition of Positions—Transfer of Duties to Non-Civil Service Employees—Constitutionality.** The New York civil service constitutional provision was held to forbid pretended abolition of existing civil service positions to permit persons not selected on a basis of merit and fitness to perform the duties of the positions abolished. (*Guastriferri v. Board of Education of the City of New York*, 47 N. Y. S. [2d] 561 [Sup. Ct., Sp. Term].) Since there was no showing that it is impracticable to hold examinations for the position

of school elevator operator, and since such positions have been regularly filled by civil service examinees, the Board of Education was restrained from instituting the custodial system of school building operation, to the extent that such system would permit a civil service custodian to employ non-civil service elevator operators to replace civil service employees.

Significant is the ruling that a taxpayer's action may be maintained to prevent a threatened violation of a clear constitutional mandate. Thus, plaintiff's suit was permitted despite the fact that no elevator operator's list was in existence, and that due to war conditions it might be impractical to hold any examinations.

**Abolition of Position—Transfer of Duties—Bad Faith—Right to Reinstatement.** Neither a city by an appropriation ordinance, nor a civil service commission by certification, can ignore civil service statutory provisions and commission rules by appointing to a classified position employees who do not possess the requisite civil service status, where civil service incumbents of the position who had been discharged remain available. (*People ex rel. Fleming v. Geary*, 54 N. E. [2d] 247 [Ill.].) The case involved a familiar pattern—an attempt to abolish a position, obviously in bad faith, since the duties and position remained, filled by civil service employees of a different class. The position was that of hoisting engineer, involving the operation of air compressors, but the city, in its appropriation ordinances, designated an appropriation for "chauffeurs (when acting as hoisting engineers on air compressors)." Thereupon, civil service chauffeurs were appointed to fill the positions, and incumbent hoisting engineers were removed and placed on a reinstatement list. The court pointed out that "under the civil service law and the rules of the commission no persons within the classified civil service other than hoisting engineers were qualified or eligible to operate air compressors," and therefore ordered reinstatement of the removed employees.

**Abolition of Positions—Appeal to Commission—Necessary Parties.** The civil service commission upon review of the abolition of a clerk's position by a board of fire and police commissioners upheld the board's action. In such case the civil service commission must be made a party in a court proceeding to review the validity of the dismissal. (*Hines v. Board of Fire, etc.*, 36 Atl. [2d] 209 [N. J.].)

**Suspension—Reinstatement—Computation of Pay.** When, in New York, an illegally suspended

civil service employee is reinstated, he is entitled to compensation for the period of unlawful suspension, less the amount earned by him during that time. (*Haskins v. Warner*, 47 N. Y. S. [2d] 793 [Sup. Ct. Sp. Term].) In computing compensation, allowances for maintenance which customarily go with the position are to be included. The decision states that

the New York Civil Service Law provides that on being reinstated the officer, who has been unlawfully suspended, is entitled to the "same compensation" as he would have received had he not been unlawfully removed. The word compensation as used in Section 29 connotes the equivalency, that is to say, a payment which adequately remunerates, makes amends for a wrong done. . . . As commonly understood it carries with it the idea of making whole, or giving an equivalent or substitute of equal value.

**Layoff—Seniority—Computation of Service of Reinstated Employees.** Seniority rights of a reinstated civil service employee may not be computed by including his prior period of service where it appears that his reinstatement was in violation of civil service rules. (*Carr v. City of Miami*, 17 So. [2d] 696 [Fla.].) Under the applicable rules, seniority is computed by including prior periods of service of an employee who resigned and was subsequently reinstated, as long as his absence from service does not exceed one year. However, another rule, permitting employees who resigned to seek reinstatement within one year thereafter, provides that an application for reinstatement shall not be considered unless the employee had been in the service for at least one year. The employee in question had been reinstated despite the fact that prior service was of less than one year. The court held that it was therefore proper to exclude his prior period of service in computing his seniority for the purpose of layoffs.

**Removal—Reinstatement—Validity of Original Proceedings—Procedure.** The Supreme Court of Michigan, in construing the state firemen's civil service act, pointed out that while the statute permits removals by city fire commissions, reinstatement can only be effected by order of the civil service commission. Consequently, a fireman who had been legally removed could not seek reinstatement through the fire commission. One of the issues in the removal of a fireman was his conviction of a conspiracy to murder, and the conviction was subsequently reversed. This, it was held, did not affect the validity of the removal, and the employee was required to apply to the civil service commission, rather than to the fire commission, for reinstatement. The court held also that the employee was guilty of laches in failing for five years to question the legality of his discharge.

An interesting aspect of the opinion is the

court's construction of the statutory provision directing that in every case of removal "a copy of the statement of reasons therefor . . . shall be furnished to the civil service commission and entered upon its records." This provision, the court held, is not an absolute condition precedent to removal, so that the validity of a removal is not affected by the failure to enter the statement of reasons on the records of the civil service commission. The purpose of the provision, the court decided,

is to provide [the] commission, in case of appeal, with necessary information regarding the grounds for discharge. . . . As defendant . . . did not appeal, the civil service commission was not required to take any action, either sustaining or reversing his discharge by the fire commission. He makes no claim of fraud and, had he appealed, any claimed irregularity or deficiency in the records of the civil service commission could have been corrected at that time.

The court construed the provision with reference to its basic purpose, which was to serve as an aid on appeal, rather than to affect the conduct of the original removal proceeding. Consequently, failure to comply with a provision relating to an administrative appeal will not affect the validity of the original removal proceedings. (*Dowling v. City of Highland Park*, 14 N. W. [2d] 53 [Mich].)

**Removal—Appeal—Right to Hearing De Novo.** Where a Michigan statute grants a right to a civil service employee to "appeal" to the city civil service board from an appointing authority's determination removing the employee from his position, it was held to grant an employee the right to a trial *de novo* before the board, rather than merely to authorize or require a review of the testimony presented at a hearing before the city manager. In the decision, *Babcock v. Foley*, 14 N. W. [2d] 48 (Mich.), the court's view is summed up as follows:

Reading the charter of the City of Grand Rapids in its entirety, we find that when an appeal is taken, the city civil service board must hold *de novo* hearings and form their own judgments. The charter provides . . . that no employee "shall be dismissed except by the affirmative vote of a majority of the members elect." Further, . . . it provides: "The judgment of such board shall be final and not subject to review in the courts." These provisions clearly indicate that the board may render judgments. From the very definition of the word, it must try the case *de novo* to ascertain the facts and arrive at a judgment.

A similar rule was followed by the New Jersey Supreme Court in *City of Newark v. Civil Service Commission*, 34 Atl. (2d) 886, where police officers who had been found guilty of insubordination and

fined had appealed to the civil service commission for redress. The court held that it was the commission's duty to hold independent hearings rather than merely to review the record before the police board.

**Removal—Hearing—Absence of Express Statutory Provision.** The Supreme Court of Washington, in *Luellen v. City of Aberdeen*, 148 P. (2d) 849, has ruled that under a city civil service ordinance providing for removal of employees after investigation, without any express mention of notice or opportunity to be heard, the employee is nevertheless entitled to a hearing after reasonable notice.

Unless the governing statute or ordinance expressly excludes notice and hearing, both are implied, and this is particularly true when the statute or ordinance provides for an investigation and vests a commission with the power to administer oaths, summon witnesses, and produce evidence. . . . The opportunity to be heard has at least three substantial elements: (1) The right to know seasonably the charges or claims preferred; (2) The right to meet the charges with witnesses and evidence; and (3) The right to have the aid of counsel.

The court held that the attempted removal of a city police officer was void, and that the officer could properly proceed by way of an action for reinstatement, similar to mandamus, rather than review by writ of certiorari. While certiorari was optional, it was not the exclusive remedy. The court also ruled that the officer was not barred by the doctrine of laches, where he did not stand idly by, but instead, pursued remedies which he mistakenly believed were available, and finally brought this action less than three years after his removal.

**Pensions—Contract.** Legislation making pension and retirement provisions for members of a police department, and the acceptance or retention of employment as a policeman, does not establish a contractual relationship between the city and the employee to the extent that the employee must be granted the retirement and pension benefits provided by such legislation. (*Leckert v. City of Omaha*, 12 N. W. [2d] 644, [Nebr.].)

**Pensions—Compensation Awards—Deductions.** An injured employee (in this case a fireman) is not entitled to both pension and compensation award, and the city may deduct from the fireman's pension the amount of the compensation award. (*Lenfesty v. City of Eau Claire*, 13 N. W. [2d] 903 [Wis.].)

## BOOK REVIEWS

**Relationship Between Certain Psychological Tests and Shorthand Achievement.** Agnes Elizabeth Osborne. Contributions to Education, No. 873. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. New York. 1943. 58p. \$1.60.

The investigation reported in this monograph was concerned with the relationship of scores on certain psychological tests and chronological age to shorthand achievement. It was carried out on 139 students enrolled in the second semester of Gregg shorthand in public high schools of Newark, New Jersey. According to the author, this study was stimulated by the increasing enrolments in shorthand courses and the high percentages of failures in such courses in the secondary schools. While the study was carried out on school pupils, the general situation does not differ markedly from that often met in a personnel training unit.

The introductory part of the monograph presents a review of previous studies of the predictive value for shorthand achievement of various tests and other factors. This part of the monograph may be of value to civil service administrators seeking a brief review of such studies or a bibliographical listing of sources of such information. Unfortunately, the summary does not reveal any criteria of great promise for selecting good prospective trainees for shorthand training.

The psychological tests studied by the author included the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, the Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test (a test of ability to see spatial relationships), the Iowa Silent Reading Test, the I. E. R. General Clerical Test, and the Gates Visual Perception Test. Of the last three tests, each has several parts. Information is presented showing an adequate reliability for each of the tests used.

Scores of the students on the various tests and various subparts, as well as data regarding chronological age, were studied for their relationship to shorthand achievement. As a criterion of shorthand achievement, scores on the Carmichael Shorthand Learning Test were used. The test is a partially standardized one of high reliability. It contains a dictation test, a test of brief forms

and phrases, a shorthand reading test, and a transcription test.

The correlations of the psychological test scores with the shorthand criterion are low, the highest correlation being with the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability. The coefficient of .3765 between the Otis test and the shorthand criterion indicates that some degree of relation exists between intelligence and shorthand achievement, but it is so low as to mean also that superior intelligence does not assure high achievement in shorthand and that low intelligence does not preclude high achievement. The relationship of the Iowa Silent Reading Test and the I. E. R. General Clerical Test to shorthand achievement is practically the same as that of the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability ( $r=.3577$  and  $.3757$  respectively). The correlation of the Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test with the shorthand criterion is the lowest of the test series ( $r=.0754$ ). This finding refutes the assumption often made to the effect that one phase in the process of learning shorthand includes the ability to see relations of geometrical figures and to think correctly about these relations. A comparatively low correlation exists between the Gates Visual Perception Test and the shorthand criterion ( $r=.0905$ ). The capacity for discriminating quickly and accurately among symbols, as measured by this test, thus seems very slightly related to shorthand achievement. There is a negative correlation between the shorthand criterion and chronological age. This is to be expected because the younger students in any school group tend to be the brighter. In the study of the subtests, it was found that none of the subtests correlates with the shorthand criterion in excess of a coefficient of .4211, which is only slightly higher than the correlation that exists between the Otis test and the shorthand criterion.

Considering that there might be a chance of raising the prediction by pooling various of the tests or subtests the author presents a multiple coefficient of correlation for a combination of five of the parts, plus chronological age, the test parts being chosen on the basis of factor analysis of the data. The parts chosen were the Otis test, the paragraph comprehension test and the rate of reading

test of the Iowa Silent Reading Test, the coding subtest of the I. E. R. General Clerical Test, and the Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test. The combination gave a multiple coefficient of correlation of .4350.

The conclusion to be drawn from the analysis presented in this monograph is that none of the tests, or subtests, or combinations of tests studied shows correlation with the criterion of shorthand achievement sufficiently high to afford finely discriminating instruments for picking out shorthand trainees. However, they probably represent the best instruments the personnel administrator has at his disposal, and this study of their comparative values may be well worth consideration. Furthermore, the monograph presents many suggestions for additional study in this problem area and may prove to be a fruitful source of ideas for personnel research units and personnel workers interested in research.

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**The Settlement of Industrial Disputes.** Kurt Braun. The Blakiston Co. Philadelphia. 306p. \$3.50.

In this volume an attorney, who has been a mediator and an arbitrator, sets forth those points regarding industrial disputes which seem to him most important in deciding what "economic groups and the government can do to remedy social and economic evils which under present conditions can not be removed by the free play of the economic powers of the individuals involved." He concludes that "industrial peace can not be secured by piecemeal measures;" but that an integrated machinery for negotiation, mediation, arbitration, and litigation, including the development of a labor judiciary, is essential. The volume does not profess to be, nor is it, profound either in economic analysis or legal theory, for it is primarily a summary of the essential features of mediation, arbitration, and labor courts.

In Part One, dealing with mediation and conciliation, are descriptions of the United States Conciliation Service, the National Mediation Board, the conciliation service of the German Republic; and the mediation systems of state, municipal, and private agencies. In Part Two are descriptions of arbitration systems, such as those of the United States Conciliation Service, the National (Railway) Mediation Board, the National Labor Relations Board, the National War Labor Board, and the German conciliation and arbitration service. Also receiving treatment are

state, municipal, and private arbitration systems with particular reference to the American Arbitration Association. Part Three presents the author's concept of the essence of a labor judiciary. It outlines the history, system, jurisdiction and procedure of the German labor judiciary and summarizes what he calls, with some question in his own mind, preludes of a labor judiciary in the United States.

An introductory section outlines in simple terms the considerations which affect the settlement of industrial disputes, with emphasis on economic and legal philosophies which tend to channel thought about such disputes. This is one of the best parts of the book, if it is assumed that union leaders and labor relations staff members about to participate in the semi-judicial deliberations of some agency for the settlement of disputes, are the readers for which the book is written. And certainly these can gain much from such a preliminary sounding of the underwater obstructions of labor relations administration. These principles must be the working tools of any person seeking to find answers as well as to win points.

There is, throughout the book, much useful information, logically arranged. For example, a section on methods of inducing the parties to make use of conciliation agencies includes paragraphs on notification of labor disputes, anti-injunction acts, prohibition of economic warfare prior to exhaustion of all peaceful methods of settlement, notice of intention to take drastic action, and fact finding boards. A section on the award and its effects is typical of the simple summaries for the lay reader, though perhaps deficient in qualification and lacking in the fine distinctions the professional in the field might expect.

While it is true that an industrial dispute in one country is similar to an industrial dispute in another and that types of settlement procedures are often alike, to overemphasize this procedural similarity, as the author appears to do, is to neglect the essential characteristics of the economic, social, and political climate in which these settlement procedures operate. To leave the impression that negotiation, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, and litigation in the United States at any stage of economic development are the same social processes as in pre-Hitler Germany is to ignore the spirit of the American people. Procedures are in most cases what the spirit of application makes them. Furthermore, the use of examples from German sources without any substantial recognition of developments in other foreign countries makes impossible a well rounded treatise which would appeal to the scholar in the field or the practitioner looking for a guide book.

The section on labor courts is effective. The necessity for harmonizing legally correct settlements with socially healthy conditions is emphasized and the recognition of the fundamental criterion that a "genuine labor court is a court of justice" sets appropriate limits to demands for tribunals to adjudicate "one sided legislation" "offensively or defensively." However, we can believe in or disbelieve in the need for economic equilibrium as between management and labor and still be disturbed over industrial relations legislation which seeks action without perspective as to total social goals. It is such disclaimers of even the intent to secure and administer legislation directed toward the general national interest which weaken the citizen's confidence in the motives of both labor and management.

Some question can be raised as to the social desirability of a labor judiciary separated from the rest of the judicial system. If the welfare of those who work for wages and the welfare of those for whom they work is so closely tied in with the welfare of the nation—and no one denies this—then why attempt to separate out for special procedures those judicial social controls covering one relationship? Increasing the compartmental character of our thinking on social and economic questions does not seem to be a good solution. Better judgments might come from points of view which relate the employee-employer relationship to more comprehensive social problems.

Representatives of management and union officers will profit from a careful reading of this book, as will the shop steward or union chairman who seeks to relate his activities to overall considerations of progressive union management. The book is a good developmental step in the preparation of the type of treatise needed for one of the most important fields of human relations, still poorly mapped and charted in terms of large scale participation in the achievement of industrial peace.

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**Counseling and Psychotherapy.** Carl R. Rogers.  
Houghton-Mifflin Co. Boston. 1942. 450p. \$3.60.

There are a number of good books on counseling, chiefly in the child guidance, student, occupational, and marital fields. Most books on psychotherapy, however, are either popular works on mental hygiene or highly theoretical psychiatric treatises. This book is none of these. The important word in the title is the "and." The author's thesis is that the counseling situation can be made a psychotherapeutic tool. He uses the terms inter-

changeably, because in his mind, any counseling worthy of the name also attempts to effect personality adjustments. The book is a practical, scientifically objective guide to those who would like to make of counseling more than the giving of advice.

The author first analyzes the purpose of the therapeutic interview, reviews earlier methods, and then launches into the newer concepts, taking up the sword in favor of the "non-directive," as opposed to the "directive" approach. His basic hypothesis is that "Effective counseling consists of a definitely structured permissive relationship which allows the client to gain an understanding of himself to a degree which enables him to take positive steps in the light of a new orientation." It is the author's belief that the counseling procedure in which the client has someone else diagnose and solve his problems may serve only to make the client more dependent, less able to meet new situations. Whereas the older viewpoint places a high value on social conformity, and the right of the more able to direct the less able, non-directive counseling assumes that the client has the right to select his own life goals. Obviously, significant social and political philosophies are here involved.

The author deplores the hit-or-miss methods in which a counselor with a Jehovah complex attempts to advise or persuade according to his own notions. Rogers' theory is that the true aim of the counselor should be the creation of new attitudes through new insights. This comes about, he says, not through intellectualizing over the client's problems and telling him to do this or that, but in approaching his personality at the emotional level, and merely guiding the release of his feelings. The purpose, therefore, is not to solve a particular problem, but to reintegrate a personality.

By making the individual and not the problem the focus, the non-directive method helps the client to mature emotionally, bringing about less defensive behavior and more socially acceptable goals. Therapy, the author states, "is not a matter of doing something to a person, or even of convincing him he should do something about himself. It is rather a matter of freeing him for normal growth and development, of removing obstacles so that he can again go forward."

With the aid of dictaphone recordings for illustration, the author analyzes the psychotherapeutic counseling process in twelve steps, from the initial contact through the development of rapport, the release of hostile feelings, the substitution of constructive attitudes, and the development of insight. In such a framework the successive

interviews become an orderly, consistent process. The reader will not cease to marvel at results obtained, particularly if, like this reviewer, he has always considered psychotherapy more of an art than a science.

In the client-centered interview, the counselor does very little talking. He is merely the sympathetic listener, clarifying and redefining statements of the client, but making no effort to guide the direction of his thinking. The utmost restraint, patience, and wisdom are thus required of the counselor, because this achievement of insight is nothing he can hurry. It must come from the client, if the eventual understanding is to be the client's.

The author feels strongly that therapy is a predictable process and not a chance development, which, allowed free rein, will reach its desired goal, so powerful are the biological, psychological, and social drives of everyone to be normal, to be accepted, and to be independent. When the neurotic clearly sees the choice between his present satisfactions and those which are more mature, more socially acceptable, he will not fail to make the right choice. But nothing will force him to sacrifice his present rewards unless better satisfactions are clearly at hand.

Rogers has done for counseling what Wundt and Titchener did for psychology—taken it out of the armchair and into the laboratory. Here, however, the analogy ends, for he does not stop with dissection. He makes no claims for originality, nor does he say his methods should be used to the exclusion of others. His technique borrows largely from Rankian psychology and from the catharsis (free expression) principle of psychoanalysis. He has also been influenced by the fine work of Taft and Allen with children.

The author is a clinical psychologist, now a university professor, who for ten years conducted a child guidance clinic, and was later a counselor on student and family problems. During those years he made an intensive study of methods of counseling commonly used, and found the usual procedure rather superficial in that it treated symptoms, rather than individuals.

It might appear that the client-centered, non-directive approach would require more interviews than the older method; but the author says that, properly handled, only 6 to 15 sessions of about 30 minutes are usually required. Where maladjustments are not severe, one or two months of weekly interviews may be sufficient.

For the reviewer, the feeling persisted through the opening pages that this method of counseling is too dependent on the whim of the client, too vague in outline to achieve its desired ends. But

by the time one lays the book aside he is convinced that the process has unity and sequence, that dynamic drives will cause an unfolding of the personality, that it is predictable and orderly, and, thanks to the innovation of electrical recordings, it is now subject to objective scrutiny and analysis. Rogers has made a real contribution, and one which may well become a classic in its field, particularly if the present bright promise of adjustive therapy is realized.

The only criticism which might be made of the book is probably unfair, in view of the author's experience prior to 1942. It is that aside from mention of the Hawthorne (Western Electric) studies, there is no reference to industrial counseling. However, this past summer the author concluded a conference with over 200 industrial counselors in the Chicago area, and no doubt his next book will include chapters on this special topic.

When one considers the vast new fields which are opening up in counseling and psychotherapy with the return of the war veteran, the possibilities for good which these "newer concepts" offer are truly staggering.

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#### **Employee Evaluation Manual for Interviewers.**

Richard A. Fear and Byron Jordan. The Psychological Corporation. New York. 1943. 39p. \$1.75.

The authors present in this manual an employee evaluation form primarily for use by employment interviewers in industrial and commercial establishments. The basic principles involved and the form itself, however, could well be applied by public personnel agencies. In the preface to the manual it is pointed out that industry has increasingly applied the concept of measurement to the solution of personnel problems. It has adopted job rating for the establishment of wage rates, has used employment tests to select new workers, and has used merit ratings to determine employee efficiency on the job. The authors believe the interview is a basic tool which will always play an important part in employee selection and upgrading. It is their opinion that the proposed employee evaluation form will provide means by which a skillful interviewer can increase the usefulness of the interview to a point where it will rank in effectiveness with other personnel aids.

The basic assumption of the form is that the best indication of what an individual will do in the future is what he has done in the past. Past performance is not to be considered in terms of a single factor, such as work experience alone, but

rather from the standpoint of the person as a whole. Use of the form requires that the interviewer have available a complete job specification for the position for which he is interviewing applicants. The specification should contain not only a statement of the duties of the job but also the conditions of work, the educational, training, and physical qualifications, the desirable personality traits, and the specialized abilities required. Employment tests should be used to supplement the interviews and assist the interviewer in making his decisions.

The authors do not profess to present anything new or startling in their manual and evaluation form but they have gathered together some common sense principles which have been found helpful in determining an applicant's fitness for a job, and have organized these principles in a manner believed suitable for industrial use. The technique presented is not to be compared with a clinical interview by a trained psychologist but is to be considered as a device for helping interviewers improve their present methods by considering the whole individual in his fitness for a job and recording the information for future use. The form was given a five-month trial in an aviation company and was found to be a time-saving device because it directed the course of the interview into areas most likely to produce essential information.

The manual is divided into three parts. The first indicates the nature and purpose of the evaluation form; the second is a statement of how the employee evaluation form is to be used; and the third, which is the major portion of the manual, is a detailed interpretation of the items as they appear on the evaluation form together with suggested questions which might be asked the applicant and suggested interpretations of typical reactions or typical situations that may develop in the course of the interview.

The logical sequence of the interview should follow the points as given on the evaluation forms but it is recognized that the choice of the items to be used will depend on the job to be filled and the time available for the interview. It is emphasized throughout the manual that each of the factors should be rated in accordance with the requirements of the job for which the applicant is being considered. The qualities are not to be considered for their inherent value alone.

Included with the manual are three sample forms which have been prepared in considerable detail showing exactly how the form may be used. Seven basic items together with their subtopics are to be used to obtain the information required in writing up an interview summary. It is this summary which is most important and would con-

tain the decision and recommendation of the interviewer. The seven basic items are, in order, (1) work experience, (2) training, (3) manner and appearance, (4) sociability (teamwork), (5) emotional stability, (6) maturity, and (7) leadership capacity. Each subject is divided into several sub-topics which indicate avenues of approach the interviewer may take to obtain the information on the main factor to be rated.

As the authors point out, the material presented in the manual represents both a philosophy and a technique. The philosophy points to the recognition of each applicant as a unique individual and the evaluation of the person as a whole in connection with his suitability for the job. The technique provides a means of accomplishing these objectives. Successful application of these methods depends, of course, upon the training, experience, and skill of the interviewer.

The employee evaluation form and this manual are well worth the study of employment interviewers both in industry and government. They should prove particularly helpful in training new interviewers and in clarifying the thinking of, or opening new avenues of thought to, the experienced interviewer. Because of the employment philosophy presented, as well as the points of interest in the employee evaluation form itself, the manual should be of interest to everyone in the public personnel field.

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#### **Workmen's Compensation for Public Employees.**

Leifur Magnusson. Public Administration Service. 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37. 1944. 43p.  
\$1.50.

This study presents a thorough analysis, supplemented by charts and tables, of state and federal legislation relating to the compensation of public employees for injuries. So far as state laws apply to public employees, the analysis is necessarily one of general laws which by their terms apply to both public and private employees. Such an analysis, therefore, of necessity, shows the provisions and defects of state laws, which apply also to private employment; and the recommendations substantially apply both to private and public employees. The analysis of compensation for disability or death of federal employees is much simpler, because of the separate federal legislation applying only to such employees.

The analysis of state laws shows incomplete coverage of public employees in most of the states, and variations in the scope of coverage in others. It also shows the substantial variations in the

amounts of compensation in the states, especially with respect to scheduled permanent partial disabilities. Although primarily aimed at defects with respect to public employees, the study necessarily calls attention to other defects in the compensation acts, and to the absence of uniform standards in the several states, although systematic efforts have been made to establish uniformity.

Mr. Magnusson's study is the first to analyse in detail all the problems of workmen's compensation of public employees, and is of distinct value in view of the great increase in the number of federal employees during the past few years. The author properly calls attention to the fact that workmen's compensation must be considered together with other types of social insurance. Further investigation is necessary with respect to types of social insurance already applicable to certain groups of public employees, through sick leave, retirement, and disability leave provisions. The degree and manner of integration of these provisions which does or should exist remains to be studied. Such a study would, however, benefit greatly from the present analysis.

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**Seven Steps Toward Simplified Office Procedure.**  
A. H. Stricker. McGraw-Hill Book Co. New York. 1943. 150p. \$1.75.

In this book the lessons taught by the "hopper, chute, and conveyor" in plant production have been applied to office operations. The Stricker plan was developed from analytic studies conducted for several years in the General Electric Company, Nela Park Office, in Cleveland, Ohio. This publication gives an outline of the phases of office work which may be analyzed in improving office procedures.

In simplifying office procedures the office worker and the equipment he uses is conceived as a single unit. This single unit is integrated with similar combinations in "unitizing" all the workers in an office. Careful analysis is made of each working unit—in combining desk, machine, chair, equipment, reserve-supply stocks, and terminal facilities—so that each worker is properly surrounded with the necessary materials to perform efficiently the tasks assigned to him.

This simple unit is then arranged so that all workers employed on similar tasks are coordinated with the office as a whole. After the initial work of planning the office has been completed, it is possible to study other phases of office operations which may be improved.

Special attention is given to the improvement of

equipment and environment. The author points out that increased production and elimination of needless fatigue are possible if equipment is functionalized, unnecessary noise is eliminated, adequate lighting is provided, and the office is properly ventilated. While furniture manufacturers and construction engineers have gone far in solving these problems, it is essential that the office manager be properly informed of the direct relationship between levels of efficiency and proper equipment and environment.

If the office manager is properly informed as to the value of functionalized equipment and proper environment, he can select the tools of the worker and arrange and integrate them to create an effective office production line. To reach maximum efficiency, the office manager should analyze the output of his whole assembly line rather than the production of individual pieces of furniture and equipment. He must integrate each individual unit with others to make it a part of the whole process.

Too few office managers know how to choose proper office equipment, much less how to coordinate groups of equipment to serve specific needs. The author demonstrates how fatigue may be decreased and unnecessary labor eliminated by the application of a few simple standards of office layout. These standards include: the coordination of groups of equipment to serve specific needs; the arrangement of equipment so that its use is continuous; the use of specialized or single purpose equipment only when there is sufficient work to make it a good investment; and the provision of supplies at the spot where work is done. With these simple standards in mind the office manager who knows the work to be performed can draw a diagram to scale and make the physical arrangement of equipment to provide an efficient office procedure. Any office manager can with little trouble and at small expense eliminate much unnecessary fatigue and labor.

Re-analysis of office procedures should be an integral part of the duties of the office manager. The office must keep abreast of the ever-changing needs of business. While the author indicates that a general survey of the office should be made periodically, it is suggested that greater gains, at much less time and effort, are possible if the office manager makes adjustments in procedures a part of his routine activities. He should keep a diagram of the office arrangement and an outline of the actual flow of work as a convenient and simple method of obtaining a visual picture of over-all operations.

The author has developed a sound and workable procedure for measuring time for performing

the various office tasks. These standards for measuring work and time are valuable in assigning work, as a knowledge of the time required for each office task makes it possible to avoid bottlenecks and to determine the number of employees and the quantity and types of equipment necessary to perform the work. However, unlike other portions of the book, the untrained person will experience great difficulty in applying this part of the Stricker plan. Only the skilled person can determine adequately the time standards for the various phases of office procedures.

With the ever increasing volume of paper work in the office there should be a corresponding increase in planning improved office procedures. By following the *Seven Steps Toward Simplified Office Procedures*, office work will yield to the same planning that improves production in the plant.

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**Vocational Interests and Job Orientation.** Harold D. Carter. Stanford University Press, Palo Alto. 1944. 85p. \$1.50.

This monograph is by far the most readable and authoritative work of its size that has come to hand on this subject. It is entirely devoted to examining the most important pieces of research in relation to vocational interests which have been published during the last ten years. It contains no case histories or illustrative tables, but it has documented references to 262 technical articles. The author's knowledge and technical adequacy are probably second to none in this field. He and his associates have contributed important theories and facts over a period of 12 years.

The second number of a series sponsored by the American Association for Applied Psychology, the monograph contains 64 pages of discussion, 12 pages of bibliography, and an index of authors. It is divided into eight chapters of which the most important seem to be the second, "Nature of Concepts;" the fifth, "Validity and General Usefulness of Available Measures of Vocational Interests;" the seventh, "Individual Differences in Interests;" and the eighth, "The Problem of Vocational Choice." The monograph also deals with the varieties of measuring instruments, special problems of technique, and the reliability and constancy of interests.

The author's method in preparing this study was to assemble the important studies on a particular topic, to criticize procedures or conclusions which do not seem to be justified, to bring out the most reasonable conclusions, and to point out the

need for more careful observation and research. He emphasizes the fact that the appraisal of interests is still a very new subject of research and that there are many phases which have scarcely been explored as yet.

This book is very much needed to counteract the present high-pressure sales activity of those who claim that they can contribute greatly to the selection of industrial or civil service workers, sales managers, or executives by a standard set of questions dealing with interests or emotional adjustments. At present the best interest questionnaires are about as "reliable" as the best general tests of intelligence. Interest inventories are useful "in the prediction of both educational choice and vocational choice. They are much less useful in predicting educational success or vocational success. . . . No objective definition of success seems to stand the strain of comparison of persons in various occupations."

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#### BOOK NOTES

##### Ten Years of Occupational Research, 1934-1944.

C. L. Shartle, B. J. Dvorak, C. A. Heinz, and others. *Occupations*, April, 1944 (entire issue). National Vocational Guidance Ass'n., 525 W. 120th St., New York 27, N.Y.

In sixty pages—the whole article section—of this issue of *Occupations*, the staff of the division of Occupational Analysis of the War Manpower Commission traces and describes its program of occupational research undertaken ten years ago by the United States Employment Service. The report starts with a brief historical sketch of the program from the early steps in industrial job analysis, through the intermediate period of constructing useful aids for placement, to the recent studies in anticipation of peacetime conversion. The report proceeds with a topical description of the occupational studies undertaken and concludes with a look into the future of national occupational research and a look backward in the form of a 100-item bibliography.

The topical description of the occupational research program consists of eight sections. Starting naturally with the project of gathering data about jobs, a section on "Analyzing Jobs" describes in concise form the methods and objectives of job analysis used by the group. In contrast to typical work in the classification of public positions the analysts assumed completely the task of assembling the information about jobs, and developed systematic methods for ascertaining and recording

the relevant facts. The methods by which the analysts were trained and the precepts in which they were schooled are sketched. The problems encountered in describing jobs and the description patterns developed by the group are traced in a separate section. In a section called "Naming, Defining, and Classifying Jobs," the construction, uses, and plans for the well known *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, Parts I and II, are detailed, with numerous illustrations. Under the heading of "Establishing Families of Occupations," the work of the unit in studying the relations between jobs is recorded and wartime applications of this information for planning employment conversion are pointed out.

In addition to the above basic projects the work of the unit on the physical requirements of jobs, entry fields of work, and on the construction of skill and aptitude tests is described, reflecting the group's concern with the placement of all types of work applicants and with the use of methods pioneered in by civil service agencies. Presenting in brief compass and highly readable form the record of the most ambitious program of occupational research ever undertaken in the country, this issue of *Occupations* may yield rewards for careful scrutiny.

**Occupations Today.** John M. Brewer and Edward Landy. Ginn and Company. Boston. 1943. 375p. \$1.64.

This book has been written to fill a need for a high school textbook in the study of occupations. Considerable attention is given to simplifying vocational choice for young people through self-study, self-analysis, and job analysis. The value of the book for personnel administrators and technicians lies in the occupational data presented from the findings of the 1940 census, in the statements of the effect of the war upon current occupational conditions and opportunities, and in the discussion of military service training which may be applied to peacetime occupations. The volume contains, in addition, a chapter entitled, "Public Service: Working for the Government," which is, of necessity, very brief and general in nature, but the authors do recognize the fact that there are several levels of government in which employment may be sought. Those interested specifically in vocational guidance or in an elementary study of occupations, may find a review of the volume to be worthwhile. The book contains many excellent photographic illustrations of occupational activities, and may well serve as a model in planning this form of reporting.

#### Personnel Management in War Industries:

**Volume II.** Bureau of Industrial Relations Bulletin No. 15. University of Michigan Press. Ann Arbor, Michigan. 1944. 148p. \$3.00.

The papers presented in this volume summarize the discussions of a second series of conferences on various phases of personnel management which were held in Detroit during 1943. The report of the first series was reviewed in the April, 1944, issue of *Public Personnel Review*. As indicated in the former report, the conferences were sponsored by the Bureau of Industrial Relations for the benefit of executives of companies engaged in war work in the vicinity of Detroit. Discussions at the more recent series of conferences centered around three problems which are frequent subjects of articles and conferences in the public personnel field: the rehabilitation and employment of disabled veterans, problems of temporary help and the reinstatement of military personnel following the war, and systems of compensation. The described practices of the participating companies on these points of common interest may be of assistance to public administrators in solving their similar problems.

**Safety Subjects.** Division of Labor Standards, United States Department of Labor. Bulletin No. 670. Government Printing Office. Washington. 1944. 152p. \$0.20.

A training manual on industrial safety, this bulletin now appears in print after extensive use in mimeographed editions. Prepared first to assist in the training of state factory inspectors, the materials were expanded, revised, and used in a United States Office of Education War Safety Training Program. In this program some 50,000 supervisors and worker representatives in war plants have completed basic courses in industrial safety. In twenty-five brief chapters the bulletin successively inculcates safety attitudes, describes the means of finding safety hazards, prescribes in detail methods of accident prevention, and surveys methods of organizing plants in the interest of safety. The chapters consist of successions of numbered "points" emphasizing facts, plant conditions, standards of good practice, and suggestions for action. Following each chapter is a set of questions on the preceding materials. Although the text tends to emphasize considerations with respect to manufacturing, many sections are directly applicable to installations and operating groups found in most public jurisdictions, and the whole is suggestive of methods of planning employee safety in all types of work.

## ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

### PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— WARTIME ASPECTS

90. Engelbert, Captain Ernest. **The army personnel process: trends and contributions.** *Public Administration Review* 4 (1) Winter, 1944: 51-58.—To meet the exigencies of modern warfare, Army personnel administration has been transformed from a passive, record-keeping system, as it was in World War I, to one which is positive in procedure and overall in approach. In the reorganization of its personnel program, the War Department relied heavily upon civilian experience and experts, a debt which it expects to repay by the following contributions to civilian personnel administration: (1) The thousands of individuals being trained in Army personnel administration will provide a reservoir of talent for civilian personnel organizations after the war; (2) Improvements in the personnel function as a staff process are being made through administrative experimentation and reorganization; (3) Many Army tests will be adaptable for use in civilian organizations and test data will serve as a source of information for the construction of new tests; (4) The importance of synchronizing training and personnel functions and of adapting training programs to the qualifications of trainees has been further demonstrated, and, in addition, the Army has been a training ground for many skills needed in civilian life; (5) Experience in dealing with problems of the maladjusted and the handicapped individual and data based on studies of the individual and his relationship to his working environment will greatly facilitate further research in this field; (6) The expanded use of business machines as aids to personnel management has resulted in improved equipment, techniques, and related forms and records; (7) The results of research and scientific study will be a large contribution to the field of personnel research and literature.—Charles W. Fredriksen.

91. Moss, Stanley S. **Canada's goal for veterans.** *Manpower Review* 11 (5) May, 1944: 20-21.—Within three months of her entry into the present war, Canada had begun planning for the civil reestablishment of discharged members of her armed forces. One year after the plans were started, the program had been launched and by January, 1943, over 6,400 discharged members of the armed services had received some form of assistance under the reestablishment program. Special emphasis has been placed on a well-organized employment service to fit veterans to the jobs for which they are best suited. Among the services granted to Canada's veterans are the following: liberal monetary

allowances for furloughs, clothing, traveling expenses; and allowances for overseas service; disability pensions; out-of-work benefits for periods of unemployment; maintenance benefits and dependents' allowances during periods of free vocational training; farm grants with financial aid while farmer-veterans are awaiting crops and other returns; and subsidies by the government for the purchase of land under home-settlement projects and to encourage part-time farming, as well as subsidies to encourage veterans to enter the business of commercial fishing. The first point of contact of the veteran on his return to civilian life is with the Welfare Division, which has officers stationed at important centers throughout Canada. These welfare officers are required to have an intimate knowledge of all rehabilitation measures and have the responsibility for directing returning service men to the departments which will best serve their needs. Severely handicapped veterans, and those suffering from neurosis have their own special reconditioning centers which are under medical supervision. The local employment office serves handicapped as well as physically fit veterans. A special services section has been added to each of the local employment offices throughout Canada, exclusively for the placement of all physically handicapped persons, under the guidance of specially trained staff members. Since July, 1942, procurement departments have been required to insert in all contracts for war supplies a clause providing for the appointment of a reasonable quota of veterans of this war and the last war, where such veterans are available and competent. The government has likewise provided for statutory preference for the veterans desiring to enter the Dominion civil service. A great influence has been exercised in shaping reestablishment legislation by the Canadian Legion, an organization comparable to veterans' organizations in the United States.—Barbara L. Brattin.

92. Norwok, Norman D. **Unified program.** *Manpower Review* 11 (5) May, 1944: 9-10.—What have been the major accomplishments of the Veterans Demonstration Offices? How have community resources been utilized? How have veterans reacted? These are some of the questions which have been answered by the War Manpower Commission's recent report on the operation of the Veterans Demonstration Offices, operating in New Haven, Philadelphia, St. Louis, Denver, Minneapolis, Los Angeles, and Houston. An outstanding accomplishment of these demonstration offices was the organization of community resources around a unified placement and advisory program for

veterans. One evidence of this accomplishment is the interest in the activities shown by the Community Local Advisory Committees composed of representatives of organizations serving veterans. In general three purposes have been accomplished by the advisory committees: (1) They have given an impetus to the exploration on a local level of the services that should be made available to returning veterans. (2) They have made the United States Employment Service in their respective areas a clearing house for services to veterans. (3) Public reaction has been excellent in all cities where the advisory committees have been formed. These accomplishments are possible because something concrete and timely is being done for veterans, and the U. S. Employment Service is cooperating with other agencies instead of duplicating their services. All of the offices have expressed an interest in the use of tests, both as a placement device and as an aid in advising veterans on their future plans. The testing program in general, however, has been severely handicapped by the lack of adequate personnel and facilities. The seven Veterans Demonstration Offices have proved an effective means of developing the organization structure and methods that will lead to adequate service to veterans.—Paul T. Anderson.

93. Weiner, Clarence M. *Facts on the job*. *Manpower Review* 11 (5) May, 1944: 6-8.—At the close of World War I there were many employment problems connected with the return of veterans to civilian life. Many of these could have been averted or minimized had there been accurate and timely labor market information and adequate machinery for translating this information into jobs or training for jobs and careers. Today, the armed forces and the civilian agencies concerned with the training, placement, and readjustment of the returning veterans are aware of these needs. Fortunately, the organization, experience, and the necessary tools now exist, and others are being developed. The occupational and labor market information developed by the United States Employment Service is already being used to solve problems that necessarily had to remain unsolved during and after World War I. It will no longer be necessary for veterans to lose the value of their military training for lack of knowledge on how to use it in civilian occupations. The War Manpower Commission has already published a volume, "Special Aids for Placing Navy Personnel in Civilian Jobs," and a similar volume, entitled "Special Aids for Placing Military Personnel in Civilian Jobs," will be available in the near future. These volumes describe the qualifications possessed by a man having a specific Army or Navy rating and classification, in terms of the work duties he has performed and the knowledge, skill, and ability he must possess. Wherever possible, the Army and Navy ratings are converted into the appropriate code or codes found in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (published by the U. S. Employment Service in 1939). Important as these tools are for those charged with the responsibility of counseling, training, and developing job opportunities for both the able bodied and handicapped, other

equally important tools are being developed which include interest questionnaires and aptitude tests. These and additional aids will be made available to every one of the 1500 local offices of the Employment Service. There is a need for information on the nature and extent of job opportunities in the nation's most important industries. The War Manpower Commission is therefore undertaking to supply this type of information to personnel in the Employment Service. In this way occupational and labor market information gathered and furnished to those responsible for "placing the right man in the right job" will contribute to a great extent in averting the problems that faced the nation after World War I—Paul T. Anderson.

#### PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

94. Corson, John J. *The role of communication in the process of administration*. *Public Administration Review* 4 (1) Winter, 1944: 7-15.—Effective administration of an organization requires the development of means of communication that result in agreement upon a common objective as well as a common and continuous understanding of the problems and accomplishments in reaching that objective. Essentially there are three purposes of communication: (1) to convey instructions and policy decisions down the line of authority, customarily by oral statements, memoranda, bulletins, directives, or administrative instructions; (2) to transmit to the administrator the reports, suggestions, and experiences of employees at each vantage point of operations, usually by periodic reports, staff meetings, and suggestion boxes; and (3) to create a common understanding of the group purpose, frequently by in-service training, in which background material, information, and the relation of the individual to the whole is stressed. Every organization uses some means to accomplish each of the three purposes. Among the methods utilized by the Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance of the Social Security Board are, on the top level, conferences and written memoranda supplemented by weekly staff meetings of policy making officials and semi-monthly conferences of division, section, and unit chiefs in the central office. Various forms of bulletins are published, either as permanent records for employees, or as a basis for staff discussions and general information. Field, regional, and central office personnel are frequently brought together. A six-week training course for employees earning \$1800 or over, and special induction and in-service programs are provided for training other personnel. Each medium of communication has its advantages and disadvantages. Oral conversation is most effective in horizontal coordination, and in other situations, such as developing employee morale, which depend on personal reaction. It is easily perverted, however, by varying interpretations, and is time-consuming. Written statements require careful and precise word usage, and even then, may be variously interpreted; however, the size of an organization and the necessity for a permanent record or for detailed subject matter determine the use of written materials. Visual aids, in-

cluding first hand observation, personal acquaintance, movies, graphs, and charts, are among the most effective media for communication. Finally, a much neglected medium is the traditional and social milieu in which the employee finds himself. Thus, understanding of the general objectives of the Post Office, for example, which is recognized as socially useful by the community, may be acquired easily, whereas it may be more difficult to create an understanding, articulate group of National Labor Relations Board employees, where social tradition has not yet accepted the functions of that Board. Insufficient attention has been given to the vital role of communication.—*Jean Charters Graham.*

95. Piez, Dorothy C. **The role of the social work profession in merit system recruiting.** *The Compass* 25 (3) March, 1944: 21-24.—Recognizing the need for enlarging the supply of qualified personnel in their field, social workers, through their professional organizations, can give valuable assistance to merit systems, by providing an important recruitment channel that frequently has been overlooked. Their cooperation with public personnel agencies can take a number of forms. They can select representatives to review and evaluate classification plans; familiarize themselves and their organizations with civil service law and with the functions and responsibilities of their departments; and establish a working relationship with their civil service agency. They can urge the use of war-duration appointments for candidates possessing less than desirable entrance qualifications, and can insist on the maintenance of high standards for supervisory and administrative personnel who will direct these less qualified war-duration workers. They can work with examining technicians in preparing valid examinations for junior-professional social workers, and in developing adequate rating charts for evaluating training and experience. Perhaps their most vital contribution at present can be the stimulation of vigorous in-service training programs for the professional development of inadequately trained staff members. In adopting an attitude of tolerance and helpfulness toward new workers, they can stimulate and encourage many promising beginners who might otherwise leave the profession. Because of all these opportunities for contributing to the civil service program, it is recommended that professional organizations band together and establish active committees to keep in constant touch with personnel agencies.—*Alice E. Kennedy.*

96. Unsigned. **Trends in municipal personnel problems.** *Public Management* 26 (5) May, 1944: 130-33.—Figures based on estimates by the United States Bureau of the Census for all cities with populations over 2,500 indicate that the number of municipal employees (excluding those of schools) on January 1, 1944, was 3 per cent less than on the same date in 1943 and 5 per cent less than at the beginning of 1942, while the municipal payroll was 7 per cent more than in 1943 and 10 per cent higher than in 1942. The scope of the recruitment and training problems faced by municipal officials can be seen in the turnover rates for police and fire departments where 13.8 out of every 100 employees left

the service during 1943. The loss in 1942 and 1943 is more than one-fifth of the cities' total protective employees. Twenty-seven cities over 10,000 in 1943 adopted merit systems, 15 for all of their employees and 12 for part of them. The spread between salaries and cost of living was bridged somewhat in the last year. Average earnings of municipal employees in cities over 25,000 rose 11 per cent between October, 1942, and October, 1943, while the cost of living index rose 5.4 per cent during the same period. More than three-fourths (822) of the 1,072 cities over 10,000 now have retirement systems for some or all of their employees. There was a marked gain in the number of cities in which all employees are covered. Employees in about one-fourth of the 822 cities are covered by state-wide systems. Only 232 of the cities over 10,000 have credit unions for some or all groups of employees as compared with 254 in 1942. The total number of credit unions in these cities is 344 as compared to 349 in 1942. Fifty-six per cent of the cities over 10,000 have employees who belong to one or more employee organizations. Most of the local organizations are affiliated with one of the federations of municipal organizations. There are, however, several unaffiliated city-wide organizations. After the war, city administrators will have in reverse the same problems they now face: re-employing the veterans, restoring standards of education and experience to prewar levels, and readjusting salary scales. (Article contains numerous data showing comparisons among cities by population groups or among employee groups.)—*Ray Mullins.*

#### PERSONNEL AGENCY MANAGEMENT

97. Davenport, Frederick M. **Let's look at the record.** *Personnel Administration* 6 (5) January, 1944: 5-11.—The Council of Personnel Administration is an inter-departmental personnel committee of all the agencies of the federal government. It is the first successful attempt of the federal government to arrive at a common understanding of personnel administration among the various agencies. This is achieved through meetings of the personnel directors of all 53 federal departments and agencies. In addition to the conferences, committees consider programs initiated by the Council and attempt to bring back a reasonable answer for the members' attention. They collect information to bring the Council up-to-date and often submit problems for their consideration. However, their work is definitely auxiliary to the Council operations. As part of its positive attack on personnel problems, the Council organizes its work with the aim of getting the maximum value from the human resources of an organization. To this end it has encouraged uniform personnel practices. It has thus made it possible for the federal government to emerge as a single employer. The drive for better management of the government business has been largely Council-inspired. The Council has recognized that if the federal service is to be equal to the task now imposed on it, administrative calibre must be improved tremendously. One defect has been the lack of an adequate supply of administrative talent at the supervisory level. Recognizing this lack, the Council

prepared a plan for administrative training in compliance with a presidential request. Revised, this plan is now being used, and the National Institute of Public Affairs, in particular, is demonstrating its value. Methods of training have been devised for key personnel and more than 100,000 supervisors and foremen in government have benefited from these training programs. In the field, the Council has initiated and helped develop personnel conferences in strategic centers throughout the country. It has been responsible as well, with the cooperation of the United States Civil Service Commission, for the establishment of 23 field councils set up in areas having large concentrations of federal employees. The Council's recognition of the importance of hearing from the more than 90 per cent of the federal employees on the field staffs focussed the problem and resulted in a grass roots approach. Another achievement has been the elimination of waste through the improvement of procedures by which necessary paper work is accomplished. Forms and procedures have been standardized, simplified, and in some cases discarded. An outstanding example is the development of new leave regulations. Improvements in the efficiency rating system and the drive for safety and health programs have been other accomplishments. The promotion of programs to reduce labor turnover, to make salary advancements a work incentive, to bring into balance the factors underlying the reduction-in-force procedure, and the encouragement of employee service work have also been signal accomplishments. The Council has always considered personnel work the heart of management. This has given its members a conception of their personnel programs which shows them to be far more than the placing of individuals on payrolls. This approach places prime responsibility for personnel management on the operating and supervising official and encourages agency executives to see the nature of their responsibility. During its five year lifetime the Council has become a clearing house and forum for personnel directors, a means of facilitating the work of the Civil Service Commission and the Bureau of the Budget, and a centralized organ to assist the Chief Executive in formulating personnel policy.—*Rita Davidson.*

98. Klutzz, Jerry. **Public relations in a personnel office.** *Personnel Administration* 6 (5) January, 1944: 17-20.—The job of unwinding the wartime federal government when peace comes will bring about a new high in headaches for personnel people. One of the most important aspects of any plan of reconversion must be public relations, which means, primarily, good relations with the employees. This involves the use of some method to gain and keep the faith of the employees in the agency and in its personnel workers. If the employees have that faith, it follows that Congress, the press, and the public will accept it. The way to gain the support of the employees is to tell them in detail the problems that have to be faced and what will be done about them. Above all, there should be no covering up of facts which are bound to get out. As an example, a reduction in force should only be undertaken after the employees have been made aware, in a frank

and simple statement, of what the agency must face. There should be no mystery which will allow any upsetting rumors to develop. A procedure, understandable to all, should be worked out. The job of public relations should be carried on by the personnel director and not delegated to someone who might cause further confusion. The door should be left open for discussion with all employees, whether individually or in groups. Above all, this job should not wait until after the war. Faith and confidence take time to develop and good public relations in the federal government should be started at once. The reason for so much adverse opinion toward federal government employees is the failure to explain to the employees themselves what they should know about their jobs, and the failure to explain to the public what it should know about the activities carried on by the federal government.—*Irving Gold.*

#### CLASSIFICATION; PAY

99. Kirby, William J., and Westburgh, Edward M. **A job evaluation plan that works.** *Personnel* 20 (6) May, 1944: 344-56.—Job evaluation techniques under the spur of an ever-tightening labor market and the various official regulations have received more attention than any other phase of personnel activities. Of the several techniques employed, the factor comparison method and the point system of evaluating jobs are probably the most satisfactory; however, no known plan of either method is sufficiently broad in scope to cover the gamut of jobs within an organization. An evaluation technique which requires different procedures or series of factors is basically unsound in principle. Preliminary study of the evolution of the point plan indicated that (1) point values adding up to a month's wages seemed most convenient; (2) point values should never be thought of as percentiles; (3) real relative weights of various factors should be determined on the basis of society's judgments; and (4) internal consistency and universal application of the factors are essential. The factors used in the plan include physical requirements, intelligence requirements, education and formal training requirements, specialized experience requirements, required abilities in dealing with people, working conditions and hazards, and responsibility. For rating purposes most of these were divided into subfactors, each with a specified range of assignable points. The development and application of the plan of evaluation was carried out over a considerable period of time. Job descriptions were developed by a trained analyst to be used by a carefully selected evaluation committee thoroughly familiar with job evaluating techniques or plant operating routines. The conclusions were checked by placing jobs in rank order and factor ranking. The total point evaluation for each job was then equated to dollars per month. The plan is potentially adaptable to merit rating for both employees and job applicants.—*George H. Bowers.*

100. Moore, Herbert. **Problems and methods in job evaluation.** *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 8 (2) March-April, 1944: 90-99.—The first principle in job

evaluation is that wages should be in direct proportion to the effort expended and the work done. Furthermore, jobs should be represented by wage scales in which increased pay accompanies increases in job factors and scales which closely parallel community rates. This assumes accurate community rates and forces an evaluation system into an existing structure. Job evaluation should correct wage inequalities and, to survive, must have internal consistency. Equitable goals should be reached regardless of existing discrepancies and labor or management pressures. For each job there should be an established maximum and minimum that should vary by a consistent percentage. A spread, which is contrary to the common practice of flat rates, recognizes the principle of individual differences as a wage factor, and acknowledges that job evaluation without man evaluation is only half of the necessary equipment for establishing an equitable wage structure. A fundamental assumption of evaluation is that jobs can be reduced to elements that can, in turn, be converted into time percentages or translated into factors that are psychological abstractions representing fusions of energy, skill, patience, and good judgment. The time spent on any one element is at best a rough guess; and a factor is at best an interpretation and at worst an assumption of the independent existence of functions or capacities. In spite of the doubtful assumptions on which it is based, job evaluation has survived and has widened its field of usefulness. Four different types of job evaluation procedures have been developed. The job classification method assumes that jobs differ in terms of one or more broad principles which vary in degrees and which can be used as guides for grouping jobs into classes. Job ranking is similar to man-ranking, except that it is preceded and followed by preparation of company-wide organization charts which serve as a preliminary guide to ranking and as a final form for expressing the relationships. The job elements method assumes that each job can be reduced to a number of elements which can be equated with time intervals spent in performing the demands of the element and that a fusion of the going rates for each element determines the present value of the job. Point evaluation is the most widely used method. It includes the essential features of the others with some supplementary techniques that are assumed to increase the accuracy of the disclosures. This method assumes that jobs can be reduced to a number of factors which are expressed in varying degrees in the different jobs, that these factors can be reduced to statistical values and equated with equitable wage ranges, and that the disclosures can provide relative values of jobs. (Principles, advantages and disadvantages, principal steps in developing and applying the system, and estimates of the validity of techniques are given for each job evaluation method. The article also contains a bibliography.)—*Michael Levine.*

101. Orear, Stanley T. **The factor evaluation of positions.** *Personnel administration* 6 (4) December, 1943: 15-21.—In the application of any device for the comparison of overall difficulty and responsibility of

many varied positions for classification purposes, it is essential to make use of those measurement factors which are common to all positions. The distinctions as to kind of work are, as a practical matter, comparatively simple to make. The distinctions among levels are, of course, a matter of degree and require more analytical attention. Evaluation is considered as a process of measurement. Final tests of measurement are arrived at by the application of basic allocation factors or common denominators of level. These factors are the usually expressed ones of supervisory control exercised over the work; availability and nature of guidelines; originality of thinking required; variety; purpose and nature of person-to-person work relationships; nature and scope of commitments; nature and control of work of subordinates; number and level of subordinate positions; training of subordinates; and fluctuations of staff requirements.—*Robert M. Hart.*

#### RECRUITMENT; SELECTION; INDUCTION

102. Borow, Henry. **The growth and present status of occupational testing.** *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 8 (2) March-April, 1944: 70-79.—The development of tests is traced from the psychophysical measurements and reaction time studies of Wundt and Cattell through the work of Benet and the development of the Army tests of general mental ability during World War I. The anticipated widespread use of these tools in employee selection failed to materialize during the years following World War I. This was due to the general economic conditions of the period and the inability of the tests to meet the varied requirements of industrial occupational selection. The work done during the depression of the 1930's was characterized by the studies along vocational guidance and counseling lines, the studies of occupational trends, and the economic and psychological factors in unemployment. This resulted in the development of vocational tests for more occupations, the establishment of norms and patterns for different occupational groups on general mental ability tests, and the bringing together and classification of a great amount of occupational information. Credit is given to various federal and educational agencies for this program. The outbreak of World War II found those in charge of personnel selection in possession of more adequate selection devices and greater occupational knowledge than was the case during World War I. Use of this knowledge has been made both in the selection and classification work in the armed forces and in meeting the personnel problems in industry. It is to be hoped that much that is now secret may later be revealed for general use. Care should be taken in the proper use and interpretation of the results of the new selection tools developed.—*Ralph Mueller.*

103. Casety, Mary Z. **An index of employability.** *Occupations* 22 (8) May, 1944: 477-83.—On the thesis that "employment chances" may be considered in terms of measurable components rather than the usual categories, "employable" and "unemployable," Mr.

Bernard S. Newer has developed an index of employability with tested reliability and validity. Several months were spent first in determining what characteristics might provide measurements for employment expectancy. Questionnaires were sent to 200 employers asking what characteristics they considered important when hiring new employees. Only firms employing more than 100 persons were questioned; 104 complied by sending information. These opinions were augmented by comments of 18 interviewers of the United States Employment Service, providing a cross-section of expert opinion as to the bearing of age, experience, unemployment record, dependents, nationality, race, religion, citizenship, physical defects, education, and earnings upon the employability of individuals. Home conditions and personality were added to the list because recent studies made at the Western Electric Company pointed up the importance of these two characteristics. These data then formed the basis of the scale on which individuals were rated. The close agreement among employers and the Employment Service interviewers on each point of the scale shows that the information obtained was reliable. The validity of the scores is indicated by the correlation of 0.72 between scores of the 206 workers first rated and the number of months they were employed. Subsequent studies using the scale show that all persons have some degree of employability, disproving the fact that, theoretically speaking, there are unemployables. Finally, it must be remembered in using the "employment expectancy scale" that it is not based exclusively on merit. There is no certainty that an individual with a low score will make a poor employee, nor can anyone be sure that a high-scoring individual will make a good employee. The individual with a high score is merely more likely to be hired by employers, according to their own statements.—Barbara L. Brattin.

104. Manson, Morse P. Note on use of pre-test practice periods by typist-clerks. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 28 (2) April, 1944: 132-33.—One hundred and fifty unemployed women applicants for typist-clerk jobs, all claiming to have had typing training and experience, were given a ten minute practice period before the formal typing test. Analysis of the practice papers revealed that 43.8 per cent of the material typed embodied repetitive finger drills, said to be "most systematic and practical in warming-up for a typing test." The remaining 56.2 per cent showed a lack of controlled practice. In a great many cases there appeared to be complete disorganization and waste of time. Many papers revealed fear, dispersion of ideas, and other disturbances. One definitely psychotic candidate was discovered. It is suggested from a review of these results that specific copy emphasizing the type of material included in the test be prepared for practice purposes and that physical aspects of testing procedures be improved.—Norman J. Powell.

105. Older, Lt. (jg) Harry J. An objective test of vocational interests. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 28 (2) April, 1944: 99-108.—Interest inventories, admittedly subjective, are the usual means of measuring

vocational interests. A more objective measure may grow out of experiments such as this one, in which the showing of film strips of classified occupational activities is followed by a multiple choice memory test. The greatest interest, it is assumed, results in the greatest retention. Very low correlations with intelligence and past experience justify the assumption that these factors have been screened out. A low correlation with the Strong Vocational Interest Blank is explained on the basis that different aspects of interest are being measured. The new objective tests promise to have both theoretical and practical significance. They are more direct than the interest inventories, and they can no doubt be made to compete successfully in the matters of time and cost. Of the 240 questions making up the test, 168 items were constructed to test memory of whole pictures and 72 dealt with parts of the pictures or with specific items which were included. The right-minus-wrong formula was used in scoring. The significant findings were the relative percentages in each of six occupational groups, rather than the total score. The occupational field in which a subject made his largest percentage of total score was considered to be the field in which he was most interested. In its present state the test is fairly accurate where the problem concerns differences among groups of individuals. It is not sufficiently reliable for use in individual differential diagnosis in its current state of development.—John B. Steven.

106. Otis, Jay L. Improvement of employment interviewing. *Journal of Consulting Psychology* 8 (2) March-April, 1944: 64-69.—The employment interview is the most frequently used selection device and, in some cases, the only device used. Ordinarily no attempt is made to measure the value of the employment interview as it is used in the employment office. However, some studies were made on the relative merits of the "free interview" and the standardized interview, the graphic report and the narrative report. The studies tend to show that the standardized interview requires less time than the free interview to obtain a given amount of information, and that the graphic report has a greater reliability than the narrative report. Another study showed an improvement in the consistency of the rating after organized practice. This suggests that training the interviewers is a vital part in the improvement of employment interviews. One of the best aids to improving the interview is the Job Description and Interviewing Aid developed by the War Manpower Commission. These descriptions, based on detailed analyses of the jobs, form the topical bases of the interviews. Research studies show that the employment interview does not have to have low reliability and validity and that, when properly constructed and conducted, it yields results which meet acceptable statistical standards.—Adrian E. Gory.

#### TRAINING

107. Hogan, Ralph M., and Hall, Fern L. Making effective training plans. *Personnel Administration* 6 (3) November, 1943: 20-23.—Employee training is

violating psychological principles fundamental to learning if it is not an active and purposeful process on the part of the learner. Motivation must be on the basis of a need or an active want, and the learner must be able to connect the new knowledge with his past knowledge. This means that the instructor must discover what the employees know about the topic and weld the new knowledge to their past experience. Provision must also be made for individual differences because employees frequently need different amounts of training and practice to attain desired goals. Finally, the learner should understand training goals and see his progress toward them marked step by step. To facilitate the planning of training projects, while keeping in mind these laws of learning, three work sheets have been prepared: (1) Work Sheet for Planning a Training Project; (2) Work Sheet for Planning a Training Session; (3) Work Sheet for Planning a Conference or Discussion Meeting. The work sheet presents a pattern of the steps which a training officer needs to consider when planning a specific project on which decisions must be made; that is, the trainees to be selected, their needs, the organization and operation of the project, the course content and materials, and the training methods. A work sheet of this type, with brief statements suggesting details on each of the various steps, provides a means of checking on day-by-day conduct of the training and for comparing similar projects. (Sample work sheets for planning each of the three training activities mentioned above are included in this article.)—*Margaret Bernauer.*

108. Rygh, Milton. *A program to improve supervision in the federal service.* *Personnel Administration* 6 (3) November, 1943: 7-14.—It is not a simple matter to direct the work of others. There are definite, specific skills involved which can be learned as precisely as any other skills and which can be taught as readily. The development of competent, progressive, conscientious supervisors provides one of the greatest challenges to personnel administration. The United States Civil Service Commission recently established a Supervision Improvement Program to do for government agencies what Training Within Industry does for industry: that is, enable management to install a practical operating program to teach supervisors how to develop their skills. Basic to such training is an understanding of what good supervision entails. It is necessary for a supervisor to know the work of his employees and unit, although he does not necessarily have to know more about their work than they do. He must have familiarity with the agency's customs, rules, regulations, and their interpretations, as applied in the work of his unit. Lastly, he must have command of certain skills: the ability to instruct, to improve methods, and to work with people. Three separate programs are offered federal agencies, each presented in five concentrated, practical two-hour sessions. Job Instruction Training is the first program, and it has established a successful pattern and technique for the entire series. It shows the supervisor how to instruct those under him in the performance of their daily operations. The second program is Job Methods Training and it gives supervisors

skills to improve methods so that they can effect greater efficiency in the operations supervised. The final phase of the series is the Job Relations Training which teaches the supervisor the art of leadership. It presents him with a tested technique for achieving high morale and production from his staff. The Commission views the training of an agency's supervisors as the responsibility of that agency's management. When an agency becomes interested in the problem it invites a representative of the Civil Service Commission to explain the "J" programs. Subsequently it is the usual practice for the organization to designate a staff member to act as the program director and to select qualified agency employees to be "trainers." The latter are trained by the Commission and return to retrain the agency's supervisory personnel. In order to insure continuing results from the program the cooperation of top-management must be gained. In that way, the agency will see that the supervisory training program is administered effectively and supported in every way, that the "know-how" resulting from the programs is carried over into the agency's daily operations, and that the organization accepts the fundamental implications of the programs by re-examining its operations and policies to see if they conflict with the basic principles which the line supervisor is expected to follow. The benefits of the training programs should be ascertainable in improved management, lowered costs, better personnel utilization, and increased production. To date, reports from agencies which have instituted the programs indicate substantial benefits. The cumulative effect of the individual supervisor's improvements has been the most impressive expression of the value of the three "J" programs.—*Rita Davidson.*

#### WORK TERMS; CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

109. Covner, Bernard J. *Studies in phonographic recordings of verbal material: IV. Written reports of interviews.* *Journal of Applied Psychology* 28 (2) April, 1944: 89-98.—Written reports of counseling interviews have been found fairly accurate but so incomplete as to distort the picture. Comparisons between verbatim records and counselors' own reports of interviews, written immediately following, show, in the latter, omissions of significant material, ambiguities, loss of details giving the vividness and reality of personal reactions, and distortions of sequence. This analysis implies that interview reports need to be written as soon after the interview as possible, that discreet note-taking during interviews is desirable and that, although phonographic recording for all interviews may not be practical, it is a valuable device in training interviewers. More detailed and verbatim notes may lessen the confusion between description and inference in reports, while added inferential comments may help in completing the picture presented in the interview.—*John A. Ohlson.*

110. Harvey, Verne K., and Strang, William C. *Personal adjustment of federal employees.* *Personnel Administration* 6 (4) December, 1943: 1-10.—*Psychiatry*

will make its best contribution when emotionally upset individuals have been trained to turn for aid to a psychiatrist as readily as other individuals turn to a surgeon for an appendectomy. It should be made possible for the psychiatrist to see individuals who are just beginning to manifest emotional maladjustments. If this were done, employees would not feel that a visit to the psychiatrist was the last step before receiving their termination papers, and it would be possible for the psychiatrist to perform a very real service to the agency and to the employees of that agency. The functions of the psychiatrist in a health program are: (1) giving aid to the personnel office in the matter of the placement of employees; (2) assisting in sorting out individuals on whom time should not be spent in training; (3) determining mental status of employees and recommending remedial measures to the personnel office and to the individual; (4) assisting in disciplinary problems; and (5) training counselors in the proper handling of personnel problems caused by maladjusted employees. Many facilities are available both in and outside the federal service in Washington, D. C., for securing psychiatric assistance. Some examples of problem cases which are difficult to handle are: (1) individuals whose services are unsatisfactory because of their mental condition but whose efficiency rating is "good" or perhaps even better; (2) a psychotic employee who is regarded as potentially dangerous but who has as yet committed no overt act; (3) a psychotic employee who manages to do acceptable work but who constantly creates petty annoyances within his section; (4) individuals who have manifested psychotic behavior but who are given good efficiency ratings by their agencies and released for transfer; (5) individuals who develop or have at the time they arrived in Washington psychotic manifestations; (6) employees who leave an agency to enter a hospital either voluntarily or involuntarily for the treatment of a mental disorder who are released from the hospital and are re-employed by another agency before the Commission is aware that they have ever been in a mental hospital; (7) a psychotic employee who must be returned home and whose relatives take no interest in the problem; and (8) psychotic employees who are released from various agencies (by resignation) who shop around for new jobs. The three methods of handling mental cases are by separation, furlough, and retirement. Transferring such employees to another agency does not solve the problem. It is believed that all large agencies which have a psychiatrist should make his services available to the personnel office to assist them as outlined in the first portion of this report.—*Robert A. Holloway.*

#### EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

111. Eisler, H. E. Social theory involved in supervision. *Personnel* 20 (5) March, 1944: 300-303.—In considering social theory involved in supervision, writers on the subject have used certain terms expressing divergent concepts of the supervisor-worker relationship. Eight terms commonly used are direction, morale, impersonal attitude, proper methods, cooperation, sympathetic attitude, respect for personality, and stimula-

tion. It has been assumed that the generally accepted connotation of these terms, and the manner in which they are employed, reflect the social theory held by the writer with respect to the supervisory relationship. When analyzed, social theory involved in supervision, on the one hand, may be autocratic, dictatorial, mechanistic, benevolent, or static. On the other hand, it may be democratic, dynamic, creative, or constructive. Views held by particular supervisors will depend upon their individual philosophies. Any agency committed to democratic social action whose aim is a better way of life will not tolerate an autocratic philosophy of supervision. Supervision must be democratic if it is to serve a democratic society. It will be personal and respect personality. Its procedure will be cooperative and will stimulate growth in self-direction. It will not be prescriptive in method but will be adjusted to each learning situation. It will not require artificial means of developing morale nor an assumed sympathy and kindness to win allegiance, since these characteristics are inherent in proper supervision. Too frequently in federal agencies supervision has operated in an autocratic manner. More democratic supervision would permit workers to develop as social beings, capable of originality, initiative, and self-direction.—*Bradford G. White.*

112. Sutermeister, R. A. How to improve morale and increase production. *Personnel* 20 (5) March, 1944: 279-87.—There are three major factors underlying good morale in every organization: the proper introduction of the worker to his job, proper supervision, and proper follow-up of the employee after he is put to work. A few years ago a study of workers' attitudes revealed that 59 per cent had grievances against their company before they even went to work. They weren't treated as they felt they should have been in the employment office, for example, and by the time they started work they were already "mad" at the company. As part of the introduction program new employees should be shown the overall picture of the work of the company and their place in it. Good supervision is important since it usually happens that if a man likes his foreman, he likes the company. It is essential to teach foremen the principles of supervision based on proper understanding of human relations. Foremen must be sold on the idea of leading rather than driving their men. They should also realize the importance of telling a worker why a job should be done, and of giving him the reason why it should be done in a particular way. Each order issued by a foreman must be followed up, else the worker loses respect for his superior. The importance of consulting his subordinates must also be recognized by the foreman. The heart of the follow-up policy lies in keeping open an intimate channel of communication between management and the workers. The personnel staff must make an effort to contact the men and give them an opportunity to ask questions and discuss their grievances. When a personnel manager waits for workers to approach him, grievances are likely to rankle so long that the workers are indignant by the time their problems are brought out in the open and

the opportunity for an easy adjustment is lost.—*H. Richard Rice.*

#### SEPARATION; RETIREMENT

113. Unsigned. **Control of turnover through exit interviews.** *Personnel Administration* 6 (5) January, 1944: 13-16.—The exit interview has been found by the War Department, as well as other agencies, to provide a reliable source of information for use in the control of personnel turnover. To be fully effective, an exit interview program should provide a definite method for routing employees to the interviewer. The supervisor should refer the employee to the interviewer as soon as a resignation or involuntary separation is being contemplated. Individuals with experience and training in personnel practices, preferably employee counselors, should conduct the interviews under conditions of maximum privacy. They should be scheduled in advance to give the interviewer an opportunity to secure necessary information beforehand, and recorded accurately and in sufficient detail to be useful. Interviews may be divided into three classes: those held with an employee who is to be retained if possible; those designed to evaluate an employee's fitness to continue in the service; and those held with an employee who will probably be separated from the service. They follow a general pattern, progressing through four stages: first, informal conversation of general interest; second, the employee's own statement of his story; third, questioning by the interviewer regarding details of the employee's story, with agreement on some course of action; and, fourth, a final stage of informal conversation. The interview record should be kept by the interviewer instead of becoming part of the employee's personnel file. Exit interview records may be used as a basis for research reports on causes of grievances and personnel turnover, for further counseling of employees who remain, and for evaluation of the effectiveness of the exit interview program.—*Audrey L. Briggs.*

114. Weinberg, A. A. **The problems and future of public employe retirement systems.** *Municipal Finance* 16 (4) May, 1944: 10-12.—The outstanding development in the field of public employe retirement is the acceptance by employers of retirement provisions as a

stabilizing influence on personnel problems. There is also an increased tendency on the part of public officials to seek technical advice on principles and procedures underlying pension planning, resulting in the revision of plans that were improperly organized, inadequately financed, or handicapped by restricted benefit schedules. Furthermore, there are an increasing number of inquiries on the administrative problems of operating procedures, accounting systems, investment policy, and controls over benefit payments. The operation of the Social Security Act has inspired more thorough study of the problems that must be solved in order to assure retirement plans of continuance as independent units. The more urgent problems now before administrators and students of pensions are: (1) development of a plan for interchange of credits within a state between various public employe retirement systems; (2) validity of maintaining a fictitious rate of interest on retirement equities above the current rate of income on invested assets; (3) exemption of retirement allowances from the application of federal income tax; (4) formulation of a plan of coordination between local retirement systems and the Social Security Act; (5) promotion of the principle that pension costs are inherently a payroll charge; (6) feasibility of the reserve basis of operations for that part of the cost of a retirement system provided from employers' contributions; (7) investment of funds under present conditions; (8) and development of a standard plan of retirement provisions for public employes. For the future, we can expect the creation of retirement provisions for employees now without coverage; a general improvement in existing systems by expansion of benefit schedules to meet present day requirements and by revision of revenue provisions; and a broadening of the Social Security Act to include public employes on a voluntary basis. This will require a plan of coordination and also further stimulate the creation of individual plans because the Social Security Act will not meet the needs for a plan that will be a stabilizing influence on personnel problems. Administratively, the future should witness the formulation of standard procedures and closer working arrangements between all occupational groups in the public service for the realization of common objectives.—*Margaret Bernauer.*

#### END OF VOLUME 5

The October (No. 4) issue of PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW concludes Volume 5 of the publication, covering the calendar year 1944. A subject matter index and an author index to this volume accompany this issue. A title page is also included for the convenience of those who wish to bind the volume as a unit.

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